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AMERICAN HISTORY ATLAS

EDITED BY

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART

AND

HERBERT E. BOLTON

PUBLISHED BY

DENOYER-GEPPERT COMPANY

CHICAGO

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AMERICAN HISTORY ATLAS

ADAPTED FROM THE LARGE WALL MAPS

EDITED BY

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THIRD REVISED EDITION

DENOYER-GEPPERT COMPANY
5235-5257 RAVENSWOOD AVENUE
CHICAGO

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May 27, 1932
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INTRODUCTION

MAP A1. WORLD OF COLUMBUS 1492

The history of America has its roots in the old world. We need not go further back in the European background of American history than the period of the Crusades. There were eight crusades in all from 1095 to 1270. During these years the people engaged in the Crusades wandered into far lands. While fighting for the cause of the Cross they also came to know of other lands, peoples, and their different modes of life and their varied arts and crafts, which were quite unknown in the lands from which these travelers had come. Returning pilgrims brought back hearsay information of the Far East, and in the thirteenth century travelers began to visit that part of the world. Among these was Marco Polo, who visited the court of Kublai Khan in Mongolia, and on returning wrote a wonder book of travel, which is still a classic. His travels made known an undreamed of opportunity for commerce. Tho there was as yet little direct communication, much trade between Europe and Asia was already being carried on by land and sea. Overland, the silks, glass, porcelain and other wares of Cathay reached Europe by two chief routes. This overland trade was marked by two distinct stages. From Peking and other eastern cities goods were brought to Kashgar, Samarkand, Balkh, Kabul, Herat and Bokhara, which at that time were important cities. Here exchanges were made with western merchants, who carried back the eastern goods to Central and Western Europe. The ships of Venice and Genoa gathered at Cairo, or at Syrian ports, the goods which came by water around India and thru the Persian Gulf or the Red Sea. From India and Ceylon came cotton, dyes, diamonds and pearls. From the Moluccas came spices, which were of the utmost importance in Europe because no methods of refrigeration or canning were known and preserving was done largely with salt and spices. To the southern ports of the Mediterranean, likewise, led great highways over which gold, slaves, cotton and salt were brought from the interior of Africa. Since the seventh and eighth centuries the Mohammedan power had been established in western Asia. At first in the hands of the Arabs, power eventually fell in this area to the Ottoman Turks who in 1453 captured Constantinople. By the close of the 15th century the fleets of the Ottomans controlled the Mediterranean, rendering trade with the East increasingly difficult. The Portuguese were the first to seek a new way to the East. Early in the 15th century they had colonized the Canaries. Under Prince Henry, the Portuguese pushed down the coast of Africa and at his death in 1461 the Sierra Leone coast had been reached. Conceiving the idea of a southern route to India, Diaz in 1484 passed the Cape of Good Hope. According to Marshall, "not the Turk, but cheap freight rates diverted trade from the Mediterranean to the Cape route." Some idea of the world of that day, as known to the European, is shown on the inset map. Meanwhile Columbus conceived the idea of western exploration. Most scholars, but not all, think that his aim was to find a western route to the Far East. Certainly he was bent on finding new lands, and in this he succeeded. His conceptions of world geography are probably well represented by Behaim's Globe, the outlines of which are superimposed on the main map to show the relations with the world map as we now know it today. Sailing to the Canaries, thence nearly west, he landed in the Bahamas and then visited Cuba and Espanola. Thinking he had reached the islands of Southeast Asia, described by Marco Polo, he spoke of these lands as the "Indies" and for generations the Spaniards called these lands "las Indias." By sailing for the latitude of Cipango, and then heading west, Columbus accidentally encountered the Northeast Trade Winds and was helped along by them as well as by ocean currents. His discovery has, therefore, been called a "windfall" instead of a "landfall." On his return trip he endeavored first to get into the latitude of Palos, Spain, and by so doing was helped on his way by the Westerly Winds. Altho Columbus is given the honor of discovering America, there is little doubt that other Europeans had visited this continent before him. The Norsemen about 1000 visited Labrador and New England, but as attempts at settlements failed and as the records of these voyages are incomplete and difficult of identification with the areas mentioned, historians have preferred to date the discovery from 1492. The discovery of these new lands provoked a diplomatic controversy between Spain and Portugal. By the Treaty of Tordesillas (1494) Portugal was given the right of exploration of lands west to the 50th meridian. To Spain was given the right of exploration to all lands beyond. These rights, however, were regarded but lightly by other nations. The lands which Columbus had discovered were a "new" continent hitherto unknown to the old world of Europe and Asia. The New World was inhabited by various peoples of varying cultures. Much speculation has been made on the origin of the peoples in the Americas. The most accepted view is that the native Indian with his close resemblance to the Mongols, Chinese and Malays came from Asia by the land bridge of the Aleutians or across the narrow Bering Strait. These Indians had lived in America for possibly thousands of years before the coming of Columbus. In the 15th century the chief Indian tribes were the Algonquin, Iroquois, Sioux, Muskogee and Shoshone. The lands inhabited by these tribes extended from Canada to the Rio Grande. In Central America civilization had made greater advances. Here we find the Maya people who were the dominant race at the time of the Spanish conquest. The Mayas occupied the lowlands of Central America, and between 1000 B.C. and the time of Christ had built many cities whose pyramids, temples and palaces indicated an advanced civilization. The "golden age" of Maya civilization was between 472 and 620 A.D. The Mayas migrated to Yucatan in the seventh century A.D., leaving their old cities to become overgrown by the jungle. In Yucatan, Mayan civilization flourished from 1000 to 1442 A.D. There the Mayas established the League of Mayapan, formed by the three great cities of Mayapan, Uxmal and Chichen Itza, which maintained authority in the peninsula for 200 years. On the break up of the confederacy, Mayan civilization decayed. The sites of Mayan cities are shown in detail on map 3. Another important native people of this area were the Toltecs who probably came from the north, settled on the Mexican plateau, and developed a high culture, probably learned from the Mayas. Following the Toltecs came the Aztecs about 100 A.D. Settling in the area near the present Mexico City, they controlled the surrounding region and by the middle of the fifteenth century dominated central Mexico. In culture and power they became the successors of the Mayas and Toltecs. The Aztecs were conquered by Cortes in 1519—see map 3. The earliest evidences of advanced culture in South America centered at three widely separated regions—at Tiahuanaco, at the south end of L. Titicaca, in Bolivia, Nosca on the southern coast of Peru and Truxillo on the coast of northern Peru. These three culture areas flourished between the second century B.C. and the second century A.D. and were therefore contemporaneous with early Maya civilization in Central America. These culture centers later suffered a decline. Out of the renaissance of these areas we need only refer to the rise of the Inca power at Tiahuanaco on Lake Titicaca about 1100 A.D. Little is known of the early history of these folks. From this region the Inca power expanded over neighboring regions until at its height the Empire of the Inca extended from Ecuador on the north to Central Chile on the south. The Inca capital was at Cuzco. At its height the Empire of the Inca developed a high culture for that period. At the time of Pizarro's expedition to Peru the Empire had an internal crisis. Taking advantage of the political religious crisis, Pizarro seized the power of the Inca and, encountering little opposition from the people, the Empire of the Inca came under the domination of Spain. The route of Pizarro is shown on map 3.

MAP A2. WORLD EXPLORATION TO 1580

The great sea voyages of this century were made in three different quests. They led (1) westward to the Americas, (2) southward and eastward to Africa, India, China and Japan, and (3) around the globe. The map illustrates the results of these enterprises in the new trade routes established and in the areas occupied or claimed, particularly in America, by the competing nations. The great voyage of Columbus in 1492 was the signal for a general outburst of energy spent in plowing new tracks across the ocean, running the coast lines of the western continents, and subduing the natives of the discovered areas. In four voyages Columbus explored the West Indies, discovered the southern mainland, and ran the Central American coast from Honduras to Darien. Meanwhile other Spaniards and the mariners of other nations joined in these exploration quests. For England, the Cabots explored the northern coast of the present United States and gave claim to "New England." For Spain, Ojeda, Pinzon, Bastidas and others seeking pearls and trade in 1499 and 1500 ran the entire coast from Darien to 8° south latitude. In 1498 Diaz, for Portugal, reached India via Africa and laid the foundations of the Portuguese empire in the East. Then Cabral and Vespuccius explored from Pernambuco past 30° south latitude and strengthened Portugal's claim to Brazil. With amazing rapidity Portugal now occupied the principal trading stations on the coasts of both Africa and southern Asia, and established an eastern viceroyalty with its capital in Goa. Portugal, not Spain, had won in the race for the Indies. In quick succession for Spain, Solis, Ponce de Leon, Cordova, Grijalva, Pineda, Magellan,

Gordillo, Quexos and Gomez, looking not only for pearls, gold, slaves, and lands to settle but for a strait to the East as well, by 1525 had completed the reconnoissance of the eastern coast line of both Americas from Nova Scotia to the Strait of Magellan. Magellan and Elcano crossed the Pacific and laid the foundations of Spanish domination in the Philippines. Balboa and Cortes established new bases on the Pacific and by 1543 Spanish explorers had traced the entire western coast of North America as far north as Oregon. Meanwhile Spaniards had conquered Central America, Southern Mexico and Peru, and from the West Indies and Mexico had explored the northern interior. Narvaez explored Florida, Cabeza de Vaca entered Texas and thence crossed the continent to Sinaloa. Coronado, looking for the "Seven Cities," explored Arizona and New Mexico, and in search of Quivira reached Kansas. At the same time De Soto and Moscoso, looking for "another Mexico," penetrated the interior from Florida to Oklahoma and Central Texas. All this Spain accomplished by 1543, just half a century after Columbus' discovery. It is the greatest record of exploration in the history of the world. During the same period similar explorations had been made in the interior of South America. Between 1524 and 1532 Pizarro and Almagro made their way down the coast of Colombia and Peru and across the Andes to Cuzco, where they overthrew the Inca rule. From there, Almagro (1535–37) and Valdivia (1541) continued south, crossing and recrossing the Andes, and conquered Chile. Orellano in 1541, turning east from Quito, explored the entire length of the Amazon river. Entering the continent from the east, Sebastian Cabot, in the service of Spain, ascended the La Plata River in 1526 to the site of Asuncion. French explorers meanwhile had not been idle, and the freebooters of both France and England plundered Spanish settlements and treasure ships. For France, Verrazano had explored the eastern coast line and Cartier had entered the St. Lawrence River. English exploration, since the time of Cabot, had lagged, but in the last half of the sixteenth century the seamen of this nation made up for lost time, and, looking for a northern passage, and for opportunities to plunder, trade or settle, their keels plowed all seas. Willoughby turned northeast; Frobisher, Davis and others northwest; Drake, with a fearlessness equal to that of Magellan, passed the southern straits, plundered his way to Oregon, careened his single vessel on the California coast, and thence continued round the globe (1577–1580). By the end of the century Portugal and Spain had become the two great colonizing powers and had set up their colonial systems in the "Indies," both East and West. These nations were not mere explorers, as some imagine, but were great colonizers as well. In 1580 probably not less than 200,000 Spaniards lived in America, engaged in mining, stock raising, agriculture and the industries. Most of the capitals of the Spanish-American nations of today were then in existence. Their work was enduring, for two-thirds of the Americas are still Hispanic (Spanish or Portuguese) in language, law and culture.

MAP A3. SPANISH SETTLEMENT IN THE CARIBBEAN AREA 1492–1543

The school of European experience in America was the West Indies. Spain was the pioneer colonizer, and for more than a quarter century the scene of her colonial experiments was the Caribbean area—the West Indies and the adjacent shores of the mainland. To illustrate this development this map shows the beginning of actual settlement, which occurred at the same time that explorers were feeling their way around the adjacent mainlands. Columbus not only discovered the West Indies, but he was also the first explorer of the larger islands. The island first discovered was a small one to the north of Cuba, called Guanahani, which different students have variously identified with Cat Island, Watlings Island, or Samana. In his first voyage he skirted the northern coasts of Cuba and Espanola. In the second he nearly circumnavigated Porto Rico, Espanola and Jamaica, and skirted almost the entire southern coast of Cuba. Meanwhile settlement had already begun. The first center of colonization was the island of Espanola or Haiti, where, at Isabella, Columbus established a considerable settlement on his second voyage. Espanola might be called the nursery of European culture in America. From Espanola settlement expanded to Porto Rico, Jamaica and then to Cuba. Spain encouraged settlement in the Indies, as testified by the fact that Ovando took out over 2500 settlers at one time and during the sixteenth century immigration to Spanish America averaged 1000 to 2000 a year. The industries in the islands included gold mining in Espanola, and cotton, sugar and cattle raising in all the islands. After the first quarter century the islands declined in prosperity. The explorers were first led south by the call of pearls and gold and in the hope of finding a strait leading to India. Columbus discovered the pearl coast on his third voyage. Ojeda and Bastidas explored the north coast of South America to Darien. On his fourth voyage Columbus, seeking a strait, ran the coast up to Honduras. By 1519 the Gulf Coast and North Atlantic coast were made known. The way was now prepared for the conquest of Mexico by Cortes and his companions. The first permanent settlement on the mainland was made in the Gulf of Darien, by a colony from Espanola. In 1519 Panama was founded on the South Sea. In the same year Cortes, setting out from Cuba, founded Vera Cruz, and two years later he captured the great Aztec pueblo of Mexico, which was at once rebuilt as a Spanish city. Within the following decade most of the native people of Central America, Aztecs and Mayas, were brought under the dominion of Spain. From Panama the conquest spread by steps to Peru as well as to the north. Pizarro, setting out from Panama, accomplished the conquest of Peru (1531–1533) by the overthrow of the Inca rule. Hardly fifty years had elapsed since the coming of Columbus and in that time Southern Mexico, Central America and the north coast of South America had been settled. Several factors explain the marvelous rapidity with which Spanish rule was extended. The conquerors were looking for gold. Not finding it at one place they hastened to another, led off by tales of riches. The fame of the Spaniards preceded them and paralyzed native resistance. Native political organizations were weak and the Spaniards were everywhere aided by a great army of allies eager to help destroy their enemies.

MAP A4. INTERNATIONAL RIVALRIES 1580–1750

The American nation owes its origin to the colonizing activities of the British, Dutch, Swedes, French and Spaniards, which covered a period of two centuries before the birth of the new nation. The map illustrates two periods of international rivalry on the Atlantic slope, from the beginning of the English colonies to the beginning of the French and Indian Wars in which the following situation is set forth: (1) the settlements and international rivalries of the five European colonial powers; (2) the territorial rivalries of the English, Dutch and Swedes in the central regions; (3) the early controversies of England with France and Spain for the possession of the interior; (4) the relation of the Six Nations of Indians to the general controversies. In the previous map we have seen how the Spaniards, centering their activities in the West Indies, gradually occupied the adjacent mainland. In 1565 the Spaniards settled at St. Augustine in Florida, the oldest town within the continental area of the United States. English colonization of North America began with the unsuccessful attempt of Gilbert in 1578 to make a settlement in Newfoundland. Raleigh, who was associated with Gilbert in this attempt, later, in 1584, landed at Roanoke Island. Altho this settlement did not become permanent it opened up to the English the view that the real wealth of America lay not in its riches of gold and silver but in the prospect it offered for planting colonies. The inadequacy of private enterprise resulted in the formation of merchant companies, which thru grants of charters were authorized to colonize certain areas. In this manner the London Company established the next English colony at Jamestown in 1607, which became the first permanent English settlement in America. The next great movement in English colonization was at Plymouth in 1620. England in the seventeenth century was the scene of religious controversy and persecution. A group, called the Puritans, dissenting from the practices of the church, emigrated to Holland. Returning to England and joined by other separatists, they obtained permission to settle within the London Company's grant. These Puritans in the "Mayflower" arrived at Plymouth in 1620 which, however, fell within the Plymouth Company grant. The success of these northern colonists led to the formation of the Massachusetts Bay Company in 1630. The next colonial experiment to be noted is that of the founding of Maryland in 1634. While Virginia was purely a commercial enterprise, the New England and Maryland settlements were due to religious restrictions in the homeland. While England was colonizing these areas, other nations were also active in North America. While France had sent explorers like Verrazano and Cartier along the shores of North America, the first permanent French settlement was made at Port Royal in Nova Scotia in 1604. Temporary settlements had been made on the Carolina coast in 1564–1565. In 1608 Champlain founded a settlement at Quebec and shortly after other communities sprang up along the St. Lawrence River. This region has retained its French character to the present day. With the control of the St. Lawrence valley in their hands, the French sought to gain control of the Mississippi valley and the Hudson-Mohawk route. But an alliance with the Algonquin Indians brought on the French the enmity of the Iroquois Indians whose country traversed the routes so much desired by the French. Blocked along these desired routes, the French were compelled to seek a route up the Ottawa River, thence across the lakes to the Mississippi valley. During the period of colonization there was an immense demand for furs in Europe, and America became the chief source of supply. The fur trade became the chief trade of the French colonists. This trade, of course, led to the location of trading posts but did not encourage compact settlement. As with the Spanish, the missionary priest of the French was an important factor in colonial development. Marquette and Hennepin were French priests. Continuing the work of Marquette and Joliet, LaSalle in 1682 claimed the Mississippi valley for France, to which he gave the name Louisiana. Meanwhile, the English, who claimed the whole width of the continent for their possession, were hemmed in between the mountains

and the sea. About the same time as the English were founding Jamestown, the Dutch, thru the Dutch East Indies Company employed Henry Hudson to sail west in search of a short northwest passage to India. Hudson did not discover the route desired, but instead he discovered the river called after him and he claimed the region for the Dutch (1609). New Amsterdam (now New York) was founded in 1624, which period marks the beginning of real colonization by the Dutch. In 1638 a small Swedish settlement was formed on the Delaware on the site of the present city of Wilmington. Claiming the territory as their own, the Dutch captured and annexed New Sweden in 1655. The Dutch were now, as the Spaniards had been before them, the great naval and commercial rival of England. Having eliminated the Swedes as a colonizing force, the Dutch now controlled a wide territory separating the northern and southern colonies of England. The threat of the Dutch was removed when an English fleet compelled the surrender of New Amsterdam in 1664 and with it all of New Netherlands. The first map, 1580–1662, shows the process of colonial development by the various nations; the second map shows the expansion of the English and French possessions between 1662 and 1750.

MAP A5. ENGLISH COLONIAL GRANTS 1580–1763

The foundation and expansion of the English colonies in North America is shown on this map, bringing out the following data: (1) the relation of colonial development to physical geography; (2) the relation of the expansion of England to the early opening up of North America; (3) the first group of colonies, 1580–1660; (4) the colonial capitals; (5) the second group of colonies from 1660 to 1763. England was greatly favored by striking a part of the coast which abounded in good ports, backed up by a heavily forested and well-watered country. The Appalachian Mountain system, however, was wild and difficult to traverse, and no permanent English settlements were made beyond the watershed previous to the Revolution. The St. Lawrence River, however, opened up a direct road around that obstruction, and thus enabled the French to get into and occupy the interior long before the English. Once on the waters of the Mississippi, the French distributed forts widely, but had not enough population for real colonies. For convenience of study the English colonies may be divided into those that had no claim beyond the Appalachians and those whose charters extended far westward. The first group embraces the following: (1) London and Plymouth companies 1606, small settlements within prescribed areas; (2) Plymouth 1620, no charter; (3) Virginia as a royal province 1624, without a charter; (4) Maryland 1632; (5) New Hampshire 1635; (6) Rhode Island 1636, no charter until 1663; (7) Connecticut 1636, no charter until 1662; (8) New Haven 1638, no charter; (9) Maine 1639; (10) Rhode Island 1663; (11) New York 1664; (12) East Jersey and West Jersey until 1702, 1664; (13) New Hampshire 1679, no charter, old Mason Grant ignored; (14) Pennsylvania 1681; (15) Delaware 1682, no charter. The second group, including western claims, is as follows: (1) Virginia 1609 (Map A and Inset); (2) Virginia 1612 (same bounds, adding Bermuda; this charter taken away in 1624); (3) Council for New England, until 1633; (4) Massachusetts 1629, note northern boundary and adjustment with New Hampshire; (5) Carolina 1663, until 1665; (6) Carolina 1665, until 1729; (7) Second Massachusetts charter 1691, until 1774; (8) Connecticut charter 1662; (9) Georgia 1732, until 1752. The geography of the British colonies cannot be understood without taking notice of the fact that there were numerous consolidations and annexations of colonies, of which the most important are as follows: (1) New Haven united to Connecticut about 1662; (2) Western Maine added to Massachusetts 1687; (3) Eastern Maine added to Massachusetts 1691; (4) Plymouth added to Massachusetts 1691; (5) Nantucket and Martha's Vineyard added to Massachusetts 1691; (6) two Jerseys united 1702. With these should be associated three cases where new colonies were set up by separation from a larger colony: (1) New Hampshire from Massachusetts 1679; (2) Delaware from Pennsylvania 1703; (3) South Carolina from North Carolina 1729. A great number of boundary claims and controversies arose in this period which cannot be shown in detail. Every New England colony, every Middle colony and Virginia, previous to the Revolution had some kind of boundary difficulty with its neighbors.

MAP A6. PARTITION OF AMERICA 1700 AND 1763

The seventeenth century wrought great changes in the political geography of the western continents, particularly North America. At the close of the sixteenth century the New World was chiefly a possession of Spain and Portugal, but France, England, Holland and Sweden had begun to make inroads into their preserves. As the colonies of the rival nations expanded and their borders came into proximity or contact, international contests inevitably ensued. In South America the Portuguese, Spaniards and French competed on the eastern mainland, while English, French and Dutch contested possession in Guiana. Besides the general scramble for possession in the Caribbean area and the temporary competition of the Dutch and Swedes with each other and with the English, in North America there developed before 1763 three principal lines of border rivalry: (1) Franco-Spanish, (2) Anglo-Spanish, (3) Anglo-French. In order to understand these rivalries one must get a clear conception of colonial growth in its principal stages. Map 3 shows that by 1543 the only European settlements in America were in the West Indies and on the Isthmus of Panama. Spain's colonies now expanded rapidly, both southward and northward. The Spanish occupation of South America proceeded upon two main lines of advance, both of which had as incentives the golden stories of the Andean region. The first of these lines was down the Pacific from Panama. Beginning in 1522, the conquest had brought Lower (northern) and Upper (southern) Peru under subjection by 1533. Southward along the coast Chile was conquered between 1540 and 1560. In this territory the Spaniards met from the Araucanians the fiercest and most successful resistance which they encountered in America. Offshoots from the coastal conquest were made eastward towards Quito, Bogota, the Orinoco and the Amazon. Meantime the quest for a strait led numerous voyagers along the Atlantic shore and up the great La Plata system. On the Atlantic coast of South America the Portuguese were slow to follow up their accidental discovery. Portuguese settlements began in 1531, and soon huge grants (capitanias) along the coasts were held by feudal overlords. Every forward step of the Portuguese had its element of international rivalry. After 1654 the Dutch holdings were confined to Guiana. There was extensive rivalry in the early seventeenth century between the English, Dutch and French. British interests in Guiana were ceded to Holland in 1667 at the time New Amsterdam was relinquished to England and within ten years the Dutch were colonizing all of the present British and Dutch Guiana (Surinam). Spanish expansion in North America had by 1543 brought the semi-civilized peoples of Central America and Southern Mexico (Mayas and Aztecs) under control. By the end of the sixteenth century northern Mexico had been occupied. At the same time Spain expelled the French and occupied the north Atlantic seaboard (called Florida). In the seventeenth century the Spanish frontier pushed steadily northward. In the early eighteenth century Texas, southern Arizona and Lower California were permanently occupied and settlement expanded. Early in the seventeenth century the French colonized Acadia and the lower St. Lawrence Valley, and pushed their way up the Great Lakes. At the same time they established settlements on a number of the Lesser Antilles and Espanola (Haiti). From these two centers, Canada and the Antilles, they pushed into the Gulf of Mexico and the Mississippi Valley, exploring the tributaries of this stream and establishing posts in Minnesota, Wisconsin, Illinois and Arkansas. LaSalle, in an effort to control the northern gulf shore for France, established a post in Texas at Matagorda Bay (1685). English expansion in the Americas began in the later sixteenth century as the English sea rovers plundered Spanish commerce, explored the North Atlantic seaboard in an attempt to find a Northwest Passage to India, and tried to colonize Virginia (Roanoke Island) and Guiana. In the early seventeenth century permanent settlements began. By 1632 important beginnings had been made in the Bermudas, the Lesser Antilles, New England, Virginia, Maryland and Newfoundland. For a time the Dutch and Swedes interposed a barrier to English expansion, but these colonies were absorbed (1664–1667). In the Caribbean area the second quarter of the seventeenth century witnessed a remarkable development. This region which Spain had claimed but neglected became the scene of French, Dutch and English settlements, which struggled with each other and preyed upon Spanish commerce. England conquered Jamaica, a part of Honduras and a number of islands. The Dutch obtained Curacao and France held Martinique, Guadeloupe and a part of Haiti. On the mainland both France and England pushed into the interior in the interest of fur trade and dominion. In 1670 the Hudson's Bay Company received from England a grant of the entire basin of Hudson Bay. After the Peace of Ryswick, Louis XIV on behalf of France, proceeded to carry out LaSalle's designs regarding the control of the gulf by founding the new province of Louisiana (1699). The capital, first established at Biloxi, was moved to Mobile, and later to New Orleans (1718). Foreign inroads in the Caribbean area and La Salle's settlements on Matagorda Bay had caused Spain to take defensive measures by occupying western Florida (Apalache, 1633) and, temporarily, eastern Texas (1690–1693). The founding of Louisiana by the French was answered by the occupation of Pensacola Bay (1698) and the re-occupation of eastern Texas by Spain (1716). War broke out in Europe and spread to the colonies (1719). Spain also clashed with England, not only in the Caribbean area but in Georgia and South Carolina. Finally the Seven Years' War witnessed the cession to England of the remainder of Florida. At the same time French Louisiana was divided between England and Spain, who now faced each other on the Mississippi. The keenest rivalry for colonies in North America was between the French and the English. From 1613 when New Englanders captured a French settlement on the coast of Maine to the permanent acquisition of Acadia, Newfoundland and

Hudson Bay by the English in 1713, the century had been marked by many armed conflicts as a result of these international rivalries. The advance of the English into the interior brought rivalry on the Carolina-Alabama border, in the Cherokee country, on the New York border, and especially in the upper Ohio Valley. The establishment of rival posts here was followed by the outbreak of the Seven Years' War, which resulted in the downfall of French power in North America. The spoils were divided between England and Spain, the French provinces east of the Mississippi falling to England, those west of the Mississippi to Spain. France still retained the island of Miquelon and St. Pierre, south of Newfoundland, certain fishing rights north and east of that island, minor possessions in the West Indies, and part of Guiana. The Russian advance into North America resulted from Bering's explorations (1728–1742) and the established fur trading posts on the Aleutian Islands. In the period between 1700 and 1763, a little over half a century, the map of North America had undergone many political changes. In South America, Portugal had extended her territories westward to meet the possessions of Spain. In North America, France practically disappeared as a power, ceding to Spain and England her mainland possessions. With the removal of French power in North America and the expulsion of the Spanish in Florida, the danger to the British colonies in these directions had been removed. This new sense of freedom in the colonies developed an independence of action which had a great bearing in their later decision to become independent of the mother country.

MAP A7. COLONIAL COMMERCE AND INDUSTRIES

In previous maps the settlement and political development of the colonies has been traced. In the early years of the colonies the population growth was very slow. By 1640 there were only 25,000 whites in British North America, mostly in New England and Virginia. In 1660 this number had increased to 80,000 and by 1690, the period of the first map, the population was 200,000. This population was settled mainly on the coast regions from Maine to North Carolina, with an isolated settled area around Charleston in South Carolina. The tendency for settlement to extend inland along river valleys is strikingly shown for this period by the settlement along the Hudson and Connecticut rivers. In later years, up to 1774, the area of settlement widened considerably. New England was fairly well settled; settlements extended up the Mohawk valley. In the Middle Colonies, settlements extended to the Appalachians with here and there some suggestions of breaking thru the ridges to the plains beyond. The tongues of settlement along river valleys were more evident in the second period than in the first. At this later date the westward movement showed its first outposts at such isolated points as Detroit, St. Louis, Vincennes, Kaskaskia and Mobile. By 1770 the population of the colonies had increased to two million. In the westward expansion, there was a curious notion held by the early settlers that the prairie areas (colored yellow on the map) were undesirable for settlement, because of the mistaken idea that land on which trees would not grow could not be fertile. During the early colonial days communication between points was mostly by water. Separated by vast stretches of unconquered wilderness, this was the easiest and safest mode of travel. The use of trails, especially by the Indians, led to their becoming the earliest land ways for the pioneers. Of these trails, the principal ones were (1) Mohawk to Fort Niagara, (2) Kittaning Path to the site of Pittsburgh and thence continued as the Pickawillany Path to the upper Miami, intersecting the Great Warrior Path from Lake Erie, (3) the trail leading southward from the upper Roanoke along the "Great Valley." By 1774 there was a continuous road connection between the extreme northern and southern settlements. In the early colonial days agriculture was the chief industry. The products grown were tobacco, grain, rice and indigo; trade in furs and skins flourished and some cattle were raised. As the colonies developed and communication improved, the economic life of the people became more diversified. In New England, where agriculture, because of the infertile soil, was less productive than elsewhere, the developed occupations were lumbering, shipbuilding, commerce and fishing. At this early time (1690) the industries were of course not of great extent. With boundless forests it was natural that the colonists should seek to utilize these resources. The earliest industries connected with the forests were dressing of lumber, manufacture of masts and staves, production of naval stores (consisting of pitch, turpentine, rosin, etc.) and shipbuilding. Exports of these articles were made to England, Spain, Portugal and the West Indies. Shipbuilding, one of the most important industries in the colonies, was chiefly located in New England. Previous to the English settlement, English fishermen had realized the value of the New England fisheries and had established summer stations on the coast. To the New England colonists the rich fishing grounds were most valuable. Whaling, too, was engaged in but shortly after the date of the map (1774) the industry declined. Fur trading was of considerable importance to the colonies. The competition for the fur trade was one of the main causes of the conflict with the French. As furs were only obtainable in the less accessible areas of the country, the trade furnished the incentive to exploration and settlement. In early colonial days the iron industry was engaged in. Bog iron was plentiful thruout the colonies. By 1774 the iron industry had made great progress, so much so that the mother country, while seeking raw materials, sought to limit the importation of manufactured iron goods from the colonies. The ports of New England became the chief carriers of colonial commerce. Until 1750 Boston was the most important seaport, Newport ranked second, followed by New York. Philadelphia, about the middle of the eighteenth century, became the leading seaport. Other ports of importance were the Chesapeake ports and Charleston. Some indication of the relative importance of colonial and foreign trade and direction of the commerce is shown on the second map by the graphs leading away from the ports indicated. The graphs show the relative importance of the colonial trade, trade with Great Britain, trade with rest of Europe, and that of the West Indies. The interrelation of colonial trade with Great Britain and the West Indies is shown on the inset map. These routes, called the "Triangular Trades" because of their three points of departure, include the following: (1) the colonies to Great Britain, to the West Indies, and back to the colonies; (2) the colonies to the Mediterranean, to the West Indies and back to the colonies; (3) the colonies to Africa, carrying rum which was exchanged for slaves, who were taken to the West Indies and exchanged for molasses, which in turn was taken to the colonies, chiefly New England, and there made into rum. A modification of these routes is found in a quadrilateral route; namely, the colonies to Europe, to Africa, to the West Indies, to the colonies. The picture presented on this map of the commercial development of the colonies is just previous to the outbreak of the Revolution.

MAP A8. REVOLUTIONARY WAR 1775–1783

Thru a succession of restrictive laws, commercial and political, imposed by the British government, the American Colonies were moved to active resistance in 1775. The regulation of colonial trade by the British government, the Stamp Act, the Townshend Acts and the series of regulations called the Intolerable Acts (1774), all seeking to impose the will of the mother country on the colonies, were some of the acts leading first to disagreement, then to armed opposition and finally rebellion. The operations of both sides, as shown on the map and insets, cover the period from 1775 with the opening shots at Lexington to the final surrender of the British at Yorktown in 1781. On the main map the thirteen colonies which revolted against Great Britain are shown in green. The areas of pink represent the areas which remained loyal to Great Britain; namely, Nova Scotia, Quebec and Florida. The area covered by the Quebec Act (1774), whereby Quebec was extended southward to include most of the country north of the Ohio River and east of the Mississippi and intended to cut off the westward extension of the northern colonies, is shown by red band. The area in buff is generally represented as "Indian Country." The intervening area in light yellow shows a section of country which curiously enough was not included by any of the official acts of demarcation, namely, the Proclamation Line, or the Quebec Act. Louisiana, now in the possession of Spain, is shown beyond the Mississippi. The western and southern limits of the colonies marked as the Proclamation Line were established by Great Britain in 1763 after the victory over France, thus introducing another factor in shaping the colonies' resistance to the mother country. In the first year of war, the British evacuated Boston but the American invasion of Canada failed of its purpose. The British failed in their expedition against Charleston. In the same year the colonies, thru the Continental Congress, declared the independence of the United States of America. During the next two years (1776–1778) most of the operations were on the Hudson and Delaware rivers. The British attempt to break the American line in two by sending an army under Burgoyne thru Lake Champlain to the Hudson ended with Burgoyne's defeat at Saratoga. The attempt of St. Leger in his movement down the Mohawk Valley was no more successful and his defeat by Herkimer at Oriskany ended this double threat. The war in the West (1778–1780) was conspicuous by the march of George Rogers Clark who captured Vincennes in 1778. The war in the South (1780–1781), led by Cornwallis for the British and by Gates and Green for the Americans, brought about the retreat of Cornwallis to Virginia. Cornwallis was invested at Yorktown by the combined American and French forces of Washington and Rochambeau and a strong French fleet which had opposed the attempted relief by a British fleet. Opposed by superior forces, Cornwallis surrendered in 1781, thus ending the war of Independence. The resulting peace (1783) declared the United States to be a free and independent nation, the area of which was to extend from the Great Lakes on the north, the Mississippi on the west and the northern limit of Florida on the south. The operations near Boston, the Saratoga Campaign, the situation at Newport, the Central Campaigns and the closing campaign of the war in Virginia are all shown on insets. Altho the main operations of the war were on land, the naval vessels and privateers of the Americans contributed to the success of the war by harassing and destroying British commerce.

MAP A9. RATIFICATION OF THE CONSTITUTION AND STATE CLAIMS 1776–1802

During the progress of the Revolutionary War the colonies gradually adopted new forms of government. They changed from colonies to states. By 1780 all the former thirteen colonies had become states with independent legislatures. Massachusetts was the last state to form a new government (1780). In order to prosecute the war some form of central authority was needed and in the First and Second Continental Congresses the necessary authority was embodied. The Continental Congress, made up of a single chamber of delegates from the various states, had no power to compel obedience to its calls for men or money or in any manner insist on the carrying out of its decisions. Each state was independent and upon its attitude depended its reactions to the decisions of the congress. The need for an effective central government was early evident. The "Articles of Confederation" were approved by congress in 1777, but not until a few months before the end of the war in 1781 were the Articles of Confederation finally approved of by the states, Maryland being the last to ratify. The weakness of the central government led to a movement for a firmer union of the states. In May 1787 a convention was called in Philadelphia to revise the Articles of Confederation. The result was that an entirely new constitution was agreed on by the congress of the confederation and in September 1787 the constitution was submitted to each of the states for ratification. In each state a convention was held to decide whether or not the state would ratify. The parties favoring the new constitution became the Federalists, while the parties opposing its adoption became the Anti-Federalists. Ratification by nine states was necessary for the establishment of the constitution. The progress of ratification is shown on the map. The first six states to ratify were Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Georgia, Connecticut and Massachusetts. The next three states to ratify were Maryland, South Carolina and New Hampshire, thus completing the Union. Virginia and New York ratified after the Union had been assured. As no union could succeed without the support of these two large states, the fear of failure helped to carry the victory for ratification. North Carolina and Rhode Island did not ratify until 1789 and 1790. The cities and towns, in which were held the state conventions to deliberate on the ratification of the constitution, are shown on the map.

State Claims. One of the main reasons for the delay in ratifying was that four of the southern states, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia, laid claim to strips of territory stretching west from the former boundaries as far west as the Mississippi. The claims of these states led New York, Massachusetts and Connecticut to lay claim to territory far to the west of their special areas. Six states—New Hampshire, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Delaware, Pennsylvania and Maryland—had no boundary issues. The delegates of these states therefore insisted that the western lands belonged to the whole Union and should not be claimed by the contesting states. By an arrangement satisfactory to the contesting states that the lands so yielded would form the basis of new states to be admitted later into the Union, the contesting states gradually yielded their various claims. Inasmuch as many of the claims were conflicting, the obvious solution was to yield the claims to the new federal power which was now taking shape. In this connection compare the dates given on the map, at which the various states yielded these claims with the dates at which the same states ratified the constitution. In most cases the western claims were yielded before that particular state ratified the constitution. The inset map serves to explain the process of boundary adjustment in Pennsylvania and southern New York. Special interest applies to the Mason and Dixon Line, which thru popular usage has come to stand for the dividing line between the North and the South. Other interesting points in this area are the Western Reserve which belonged to Connecticut until 1800 and the Pennsylvania Triangle which enabled Pennsylvania to reach Lake Erie. Title to this land was bought by Pennsylvania from the Federal Government after Connecticut, Virginia and New York had yielded their claims.

MAP A10. WESTWARD MOVEMENT

The movement westward is one of the most significant trends in American History. In colonial days the pioneering spirit of the English, Dutch, and Swedes had led to an ever-increasing conquest of the wilderness. Altho the French were important factors in early American history, their settlements existed more for the benefit of missionaries, military men and traders than for the purpose of permanent settlement and development of the country. The Spanish were no more aggressive than the French. The Dutch and Swedes were early eliminated as factors in American development. On map 7 Colonial Commerce is shown two phases of settlement. The first up to 1660 shows the settlement of the coast lands and a movement up the principal rivers. The second phase, up to the Revolutionary War, shows the stride made in the advance to the west. The main frontier line had reached the Appalachians and had even broken thru in spots. Isolated outposts existed at Detroit, Kaskaskia and St. Louis. In this westward movement the difficulties imposed by the physical nature of the country are well illustrated on the map, which shows the relatively narrow coastal plain and the relatively high Appalachian Mountains, that for long imposed a barrier to westward expansion to the broad plains of the Mississippi basin beyond. Emigration to the west had many causes. Some had the spirit of the pioneer; the economic chaos resulting from the Revolution led to many seeking their fortunes in the west; some desired to escape the more densely populated areas; some moved because of political differences and others because of religious opinions. To all the west held out the promise of cheap land and more freedom. By 1790 there were about 200,000 people settled west of the Appalachians; in 1800 this had increased to over 380,000. The line of settlement by 1803 extended from the western boundary of Pennsylvania down the Ohio to the Mississippi and across Tennessee to the St. John River in Florida. Population had not only increased and spread over wider areas but transportation had gradually improved. Some evidence of the development of the road system may be noted by comparing map 7 with the present map, where we see that roads reached from Maine to Florida and the settlements in the Ohio valleys were linked up with the coast regions. It is interesting to note that the main road from Boston to Savannah followed the general direction of the Fall Line on the eastern rivers. This line marked the presence of water power and the head of navigation, and this in turn led to the development of towns, and helped to determine the course of the great roads. The second period from 1803 to 1829 showed a very rapid development of the west. Settlements had by the latter year extended far west, covering southern Indiana and Illinois, and reaching up the Missouri and Arkansas rivers. The South was now well settled. The internal improvements were most marked in this period. The War of 1812 had shown the necessity for improved transportation, and the desire for quicker and better transportation between the various parts of the country led to the building of an extensive network of roads. The Fall Line Road was extended thru Montgomery to near New Orleans. Many roads were built in the Ohio and Tennessee valleys. St. Louis was now in direct communication with the East and some roads were built south from the Ohio valley. For purposes of continuity, the centers of population are also shown up to 1860, when we see that it had reached a point on the Scioto River in Ohio. An index of this whole movement can be found in the gradual shifting of the center of population westward. In 1790, the date of the first census, the center of population was on the eastern side of Chesapeake Bay in Maryland. Moving almost in a straight line westward, it had reached the western edge of the Appalachians by 1830, almost the date of the map. The development of transportation in our country is marked by four stages: first, the turnpike period which lasted slightly beyond 1830; the canal stage followed. Rivers had been an important factor in the early development of the country; with the invention of the steamboat, river traffic increased rapidly. Canals had been built as early as 1787. The Dismal Swamp Canal, shown on Map A, opened in 1794, was the first canal constructed in United States. The era of canal building did not begin until after the War of 1812. The Erie Canal was the most important canal project of this period. The Erie Canal, successful from its inception, became a great factor in developing the west. Not only did it develop the area adjacent to its line, but it enabled the goods of the west to reach the east coast points at greatly reduced rates. The Erie Canal served as an important economic bond between the East and the West. The success of the Erie Canal led other states, particularly Pennsylvania, to develop canals. The completed canals up to 1829 are shown on the map. Hardly had canal building begun before there was built the first railroad in America, the Baltimore and Ohio. The further course of internal improvements is shown on map 13. The building up of the West meant political stability. Out of the Territory Northwest of the River Ohio created in 1787 there came (1) Ohio admitted in 1803, (2) Indiana 1816, (3) Illinois 1818, (4) Michigan Territory. South of the Ohio the territory was divided as follows: (1) Kentucky admitted in 1793, (2) Tennessee 1796, (3) Mississippi Territory 1798 and Mississippi state 1817, (4) Alabama territory 1817 and Alabama state 1819. This map shows also the campaigns of the War of 1812 with the naval engagements (see inset). The growth of population for this period may be traced on map 49.

MAP A11. LOUISIANA PURCHASE AND CONTROVERSIES 1803–1819

The territorial expansion of the United States west of the Mississippi, especially as related to the complications arising out of the Louisiana Purchase and the controversies connected with the Oregon Country, are illustrated on this map. At the same time the process of state-making east of the Mississippi, touched on in the two preceding maps, is clearly brought out and summarized. In considering the controversies over Louisiana Territory one should have clearly in

mind the geographical data bearing on the early French explorations and claims to which the Louisiana Territory owes its origin. The "Louisiana" of the present map represents only the western half of the French territory known as "Louisiana," since the eastern half was lost to the British in 1763, which after the Revolution passed to the United States. Before this actual issue of the control of the territory west of the Mississippi had arisen, the Union was augmented by three new states—Vermont in 1791, Kentucky in 1792 and Tennessee in 1796, making sixteen states in the Union. Louisiana belonged to France until 1763, when she ceded to Great Britain all the territory of Louisiana east of the Mississippi except New Orleans. By a treaty made with Spain in the previous year, France transferred to Spain New Orleans and all of Louisiana west of the Mississippi. In 1800, by a secret treaty Spain surrendered Louisiana and New Orleans to France. The development of the west made the Mississippi the natural outlet for this region, and that a foreign power should be in possession of its chief port at its mouth was a situation not particularly to the liking of Jefferson who was then president of the United States. In 1803 Great Britain declared war on France. Pressed by need of funds to carry on the war against the British and also fearful that Louisiana might fall into the hands of the British, Napoleon negotiated the transfer of Louisiana to the United States in 1803. The added territory more than doubled the area of the United States. At the time when the western half of the Louisiana Territory passed from the French to the Spanish (1763) no agreement as to the precise location of the western boundary of Louisiana had ever been reached. When the territory passed from the French to the United States this undefined boundary at once became a matter of dispute between United States and Spain. The natural boundary of Louisiana on the west followed the divide between the Mississippi and the rivers to the west and southwest. Further west the United States and Spain came into conflict. On the strength of Gray's discovery in 1792 and the explorations of Lewis and Clark 1804–1806, the United States laid claim to this far west area. As a result of local and international issues the United States occupied West Florida between 1810 and 1813. This she felt justified in doing, as she considered it part of the territory of Louisiana. By the treaty of 1819 between Spain and United States the western boundary of Louisiana was defined. Spain's claims to the territory of the Columbia basin were abandoned and East and West Florida were acquired by the United States. When East and West Florida were acquired, the United States' claims to Texas were abandoned. The northern boundary of Louisiana was settled by treaty with the British in 1818. The present map also illustrates the Oregon country controversy. Spain laid claim to this area by reason of discovery, which claim she abandoned in 1819. The British claims were based on Drake's voyage 1577–80 and the occupation of posts in Oregon by the Hudson's Bay Company, beginning in 1806–07. The agreement of 1818 between United States and Great Britain provided for joint occupation of this region by citizens of both countries. The Maine boundary was at this time in controversy between the United States and Great Britain.

MAP A12.
TERRITORIAL ACQUISITIONS 1776–1866

The territorial expansion of the United States from the recognition of its independence by Great Britain in 1783 to the rounding out of the Southwest thru the Gadsden Purchase in 1853 is traced on this map. The territorial expansion falls into a series of a few great acquisitions of territory. The original United States consisted of thirteen states, with a great unorganized area stretching from the Appalachians to the Mississippi (see maps 4, 5 and 7). Following its historical development Louisiana was acquired by purchase in 1803 (see map 11). The next acquisition was in the south. East Florida was originally in the hands of the Spanish as a result of the expedition of Ponce de Leon (1513). In 1763 it passed to the English, reverted to the Spanish in 1783, and finally was purchased by the United States in 1819 (see map 11). The next great accession was that of Texas. Settled by the Spanish, Texas became a province of Mexico on the declaration of Mexican independence in 1821. Settled in part by people from the southern parts of United States, these immigrants came into conflict with the Mexican government on matters of political control. Successful in their opposition to the established government, the American settlers established the Republic of Texas in 1836. The annexation of Texas was one of the important issues of the election of 1844. The election decided favorably for its annexation and Texas entered the Union as a state in 1845. The boundaries of Texas at various times are shown on the map. The treaty at the close of the Revolutionary War did not clearly define the northeastern boundary of the United States. There were frequent disputes between Maine and New Brunswick. In 1842 by the Webster-Ashburton Treaty, the Maine-New Brunswick boundary was settled, also the boundary from Lake Huron to the Lake of the Woods. The boundary from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains had been fixed at 49° north latitude by the treaty of 1818. In the new northwest—the Oregon country and British Columbia—Spain, United States and Great Britain had conflicting claims. Russia too had claims. Spain's claims were eliminated by the treaty of 1819. In 1824 Russia relinquished her claims. By the treaty of 1818 United States and Great Britain occupied this country jointly. In the election of 1844 when the Texas issue was important the Oregon question was also prominent, which gave rise to the cry "Fifty-four forty or fight." In 1846 an arrangement was made with Great Britain whereby the 49° parallel was accepted as the dividing line between the two nations, leaving only the San Juan water boundary in controversy which however was settled in 1872. The limits of the United States on the west were thus finally settled. The compromise reached in the Oregon case made it easier for the United States to come to an issue with Mexico. The war with Mexico (1846–1848) resulted in the cession of New Mexico and part of Texas. Part of the southern boundary of this cession was later adjusted by the Gadsden Purchase in 1853. This strip was purchased from Mexico by United States in order to provide a convenient route for a railroad. The area of continental United States has remained unchanged since 1842. Adjustments of a very minor nature have been made in international boundaries since the last boundary adjustment of 1872.

MAP A13.
LAND AND WATER ROUTES 1829–1860

The United States by 1829 was roughly divided into three sections—the North, South and the West. The North included New England and the four middle states of New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey and Delaware. It was the most thickly settled section of the country and at this time had a population of almost six million. Its manufactures and wealth made it the dominant section of the country. The South included the eight states from Maryland to Louisiana, Florida and the states of Kentucky, Tennessee and Missouri and the territory of Arkansas. This area contained some 6,000,000 people. It was less advanced than the North, had a large slave population and few manufacturing centers. The West began on the borders of New York and Pennsylvania and included the relatively new states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois and the territory of Michigan. This area had a population of over a million. The West, populated mostly from the North, developed the attitudes of the North. Some phases of the economic development of the United States were traced on map 10. In 1830 the country was entering the railroad building era. Canals, tho still being built, were about to lose their early importance. By 1840 the railroad mileage of the country extended to 2818 miles. By 1850 this had increased to 9021 miles, and by 1860, at the close of the period under consideration and just prior to the Civil War, the mileage had increased to 30,635 miles. The decade between 1850 and 1860 showed tremendous growth in railroad building. In the decade 1840 to 1850 railroad building was most rapid in New England and the Middle States. Between 1850 and 1860, a period of tremendous growth, the North continued to build lines and the South developed an extensive railroad system. Railroad building was especially rapid in the West in this decade. Chicago and New York were connected in 1853 and in the following year the Mississippi was reached. In 1855 St. Louis had rail communication with New York. St. Joseph on the Missouri River was the farthest point west reached in 1860. Railroad building into the northwest was also vigorously engaged in. In view of the economic development of the country, most of the railroads constructed were north of the Ohio River. One of the most striking developments was the reflection of the demand for east and west transportation, caused by the emigration movement. While the South had developed a considerable railroad system, yet the deficiency of direct rail communication between North and South suggested a lack of intercourse which was one cause of misunderstanding between the two sections. The close relationship between the lines of the railroads and the old trails and roads (see maps 7 and 10) should be noted. They thus testify to the fundamental influence of topography in fixing the lines of communication, which in turn influence the establishment of cities and towns as centers of commercial, industrial and intellectual development. Chicago and New Orleans were now in direct communication and one could also travel direct from New York to Washington down the "Great Valley" to Chattanooga and Memphis. On the Pacific Coast the short road near Sacramento, California, indicated the beginning of railroad building in the far west.

MAP A14. MEXICAN WAR AND COMPROMISE OF 1850

The peopling of the open areas of the west as traced on maps 10 and 13 led in time to the political organization of these territories. In 1820 the United States consisted of 21 states and several territories organized and unorganized. At this date there was no state west of the Mississippi. State and territory creation was not confined, however, to the area usually called "The West." In the south and southwest

many new states and territories were also formed. Between 1820 and 1850 the process of state and territory formation was as follows: (1) Maine, admitted out of Massachusetts, 1820; (2) Missouri, admitted out of Missouri Territory, 1821 (the western part of the former Territory of Missouri was left without any government until 1854); (3) Arkansas, out of Territory of Arkansas, 1836. (The western end of the territory, which was a part of the unorganized portion of the former Territory of Missouri, was occupied by Indian tribes and called the Indian Territory, tho it had no territorial government.) (4) Michigan, out of part of the Territory of Michigan, 1837; (5) Florida, out of the Territory of Florida, 1845; (6) Texas, the former independent republic of Texas, 1845; (7) Iowa, part of Territory of Iowa, 1846; (8) Wisconsin, part of Territory of Wisconsin, 1848; (9) California, out of territory conquered from Mexico, without passing thru organized territorial government, 1850; (10) Minnesota Territory, created in part out of the unorganized territory, 1850. Notwithstanding the general political unity thruout the country, the dissimilar conditions between different parts, with the effect on industry and social life, produced sectional differences, some of national importance. One question in particular caused disagreement and that was slavery. In the earliest days of the republic, slavery was permitted thruout the Union. The northern states in which slavery became unsuited to the new conditions passed laws prohibiting slave holding and by 1819 there were an equal number of slave and free states—eleven of each. The feeling over the slavery issue was so high that when Maine asked admission as a free state, Congress enacted the famous Compromise of 1820, whereby the admission of Maine as a free state was balanced by the admission of Missouri as a slave state. Slavery, however, was prohibited in all the rest of Louisiana Purchase Territory north of the southern boundary of Missouri—36°30′ north latitude. The agitation against slavery persisted in the north and was equally strenuously defended in the south. The north opposed the extension of slave holding territory while the south favored extension. When the republic of Texas was admitted to the Union in 1845, the South saw an opportunity to extend slave holding territory, for the great size of Texas gave promise of adding to the voting strength of the slave-holding South. With the annexation of Texas there developed a boundary dispute with Mexico. The dispute developed into war. The forces of Taylor were successful along the Rio Grande and Northern Mexico. Scott occupied Vera Cruz and Mexico City. In the west, Fremont took possession of California and Kearney occupied New Mexico and Arizona. The peace of 1848 ceded to the United States an area including California, Nevada, Utah, parts of Wyoming, Colorado, New Mexico and Arizona (see Mexican Cession, map 12).

The Mexican Cession reopened the slavery controversy. The North opposed opening this new area to slavery; the South desired to extend slavery into the new territory. Before the signing of the peace treaty between Mexico and United States, gold was discovered in California. This discovery led to a great development in California and in 1849 a state constitution was framed with a provision against slavery. The dispute over the admission of California led to the Compromise of 1850 which provided that California should be admitted as a free state and that the territories of Utah and New Mexico should be organized without mention of slavery. The compromise also provided for an effective fugitive slave law. The division of the country into free states and territories and slave states and territories is shown on map 14. The principal slave routes, with chief slave centers and also the "underground" routes of fugitive slaves (shown on map 14) illustrates some aspects of the slave traffic at this time. The historical aspects of the slavery movement and its abolition are shown in greater detail on maps 35 and 36.

MAP A15. SECESSION 1860–1861

Between 1850 and 1860 the country continued to make remarkable progress. This progress, however, was practically confined to the North and the West. There was an increasing tide of immigration. In the ten years from 1850 to 1860 there were over two and one-half million immigrants. Because of the potato famine in 1846 Ireland contributed a large part of this immigration, while political conditions in Germany in 1848 led many Germans to seek greater freedom in the United States. Part of this drift of immigration found its way to the West by the old water route thru the Erie Canal and the Lakes and by the new railroads. Easterners, too, found the opener lands of the West a greater field of opportunity than the more developed lands of the Eastern States. A more detailed study of the immigration movement is shown on map 42. The influences of this enormous immigration were practically confined to the North and West. The immigrant avoided slave territory as if by instinct. The labor system of the South being based on that of slavery, was not favorable ground for free labor. Slavery had put the South out of harmony with the progressive movements of the country as a whole. The two sections, North and South, were gradually drifting apart. When the Compromise of 1850 was made it was thought final and beyond repeal. Anti-slavery feeling in the North was stimulated by the manner of the operation of the fugitive slave laws after 1850. In 1854 the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act, organizing Kansas and Nebraska into two new territories, which according to Douglas and others did not desire to legislate slavery into the territories, but left them free to form and regulate their domestic institutions in their own way. The act also carried in it an express repeal of the Missouri Compromise. The decision that the question of slavery in the territory be decided by the people led to aggressive movements from the North and West on the one hand and the South on the other to influence the slavery decision. Two governments, one anti-slavery, the other pro-slavery, established themselves in the territory of Kansas, which led to guerilla warfare in the territory. The agitation on the slavery issue was further heightened by the Dred Scott decision which held that Congress had no right to forbid slavery in the territories and consequently the Missouri Compromise had been unconstitutional. That the pro-slavery forces felt the increasing power of the anti-slavery forces is shown by the fact that while in 1850 the representation of slave and free states was practically equal, in 1860 the free states had 36 senators and the slave states only 30 senators. In the House there were 147 members from free states and 90 members from slave states. Thus political power was in the hands of the free states. In the presidential campaign of 1860, slavery and secession were the great issues. The Southern Democrats warned the nation that secession would follow if the principle of slavery was challenged. The result of the election was that Lincoln became the choice of the nation on an anti-slavery platform, altho by a vote of less than half of the electors. Altho Lincoln affirmed that he would not interfere with slavery where it existed already, the fear of the South led to a secessionist movement. Led by South Carolina, the states of Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana and Texas seceded from the Union before Lincoln had been inaugurated in 1861. These states formed themselves into the Confederate States of America. Attempts at compromise were made but to no purpose. The South opened the struggle against a superior opponent. In 1860 the United States had a population of 31,000,000, of which 9,000,000, including slaves lived in the 11 seceding states while 22,000,000 lived in the 23 northern states (including territories). With larger man power, greater facilities for the making of munitions and supplies, and greater wealth, the superiority of the North was overwhelming. Thruout the seceding states United States property, as mints, arsenals and forts, was seized by Confederate forces. Federal authorities were advised to maintain peace until the new administration of Lincoln should come into office. The spirit of discussion between the North and South was soon to pass into open hostilities. Shortly after Lincoln had taken office the Federal authorities started an expedition to provision Fort Sumter. This attempt brought on a Confederate attack and on April 14, 1861 Fort Sumter surrendered to the Confederacy. This was the beginning of the Civil War. With the call for volunteers by Lincoln the North accepted the challenge of the Secession States. The border states of Arkansas, North Carolina, Tennessee and Virginia cast in their lot with the seceding states, while the upper tier of border states including Missouri, Kentucky, Maryland and Delaware remained loyal to the Union.

MAP A16. CIVIL WAR

The first serious battle between the Union and Confederacy was at Bull Run, south of Washington. It ended in the defeat of the Union forces. This defeat brought home to the Union the need for better preparation for the war and also the knowledge that the South could not be conquered in a short time. Congress, therefore, voted to raise an army of 500,000 men and ample funds for war purposes. The war strategy of the Union undertook first to blockade the southern ports. This blockade was to have the effect of cutting off the South from the markets of Europe, including England which at that time imported cotton from the South to the amount of $200,000,000 in 1860. The Confederates believed England would not tolerate any such blockade of her trade and therefore looked for the support of England. The second point of Union strategy was to open the Mississippi. Controlling the Mississippi, the South could use the river as a trade channel thru its territory. In the hands of the North (1) the Mississippi would provide an outlet for the commerce of the West and Northwest; (2) it would enable the Union to split the Confederacy; (3) it could be used by the Union navy for concentrating troops in the rear of the Confederates and in transporting supplies; (4) it would prevent the South from getting supplies from west of the Mississippi. The third important war plan of the Union was to capture Richmond, the capital of the Confederacy. The fourth line of Union strategy was to drive a wedge thru Confederate territory across Georgia to the sea. The Union blockade of the ports of the Confederacy, involving over 3500 miles of coastline, meant the creation of an immense fleet. At first the blockade could not prevent foreign or Southern vessels from running the blockade, but as the Union fleet was increased the blockade became more and more effective. Confederate cruisers also managed to harass Northern commerce. The sea warfare between the North and the South led to the introduction of armored vessels in warfare. The Merrimac and Monitor changed the course of naval history. From a military point of view the South at the beginning of the war held the

advantage. Ably led, possessed of ample military supplies, occupying a country difficult to attack, with many ports open to receive world trade, and with a people fired by the enthusiasm of their cause, the Confederacy entered the war determined to maintain its position. Against the comparative readiness of the South to engage in warfare, the North had insufficient military forces and a totally inadequate naval force for the accomplishment of the task of overcoming the South. During the first year of war about 660,000 troops were raised by the North and probably about 500,000 by the South. Within a few months from the beginning of the war the blockade by sea had begun to seriously affect the South and in 1862, the second year of the war, the Union forces had begun to move further south. In this year New Orleans was captured by the Northern forces. The movement to drive a wedge along the Mississippi and so divide the Confederacy also made considerable progress from the North. In the next year, with the fall of Vicksburg and Port Hudson, the control of the Mississippi was in the hands of the North. This part of the campaign plan had been completed and the Confederacy had been cut in two, thus depriving the South of a valuable territory for source of supplies and war materials. The gradual extension of the Southern areas occupied by Northern troops and the consequent gradual shrinkage in the areas controlled by the South is shown on the map by (1) the dark blue dash and dot lines, showing the fluctuating progress of the Northern and Southern front at yearly intervals from the outbreak of the war up to April, 1864; (2) the buff coloring shows the territory under Confederate control in March 1865. A study of these areas shows the pulsations during the war, and, in particular, how at the end the Confederate territory was cut in two by the tongue of land under Federal control (marked in yellow) that reached down both banks of the Mississippi. This area, it will be noted, extends over much of the coastal area, thus testifying to the control of sea power by the North and the effective and crushing use made of it. When Lee began his final campaign in 1865, not a single major seaport along the whole coast from the Mississippi to the Chesapeake remained in the hands of the Confederacy. They were cut off completely from all intercourse with the outside world and were thrown back on their own inadequate resources. The hopelessness of the Southern efforts is brought home still further by a study of Sherman's "March to the Sea." By the beginning of 1865 he had cut straight thru Confederate territory and was already turning northward from Savannah. Sherman's march thus brought about the second partition of the Confederacy. On the map, the various movements of the war are indicated. Important war areas, as the Virginia campaigns including that which ended with Lee's surrender, Vicksburg campaign of Grant and the Atlanta campaign of Sherman are shown on the inset maps on larger scales. In April and May of 1865 the last of the Confederate armies surrendered and the presidential proclamation of amnesty of May 29, 1865 marked the end of the Civil War.

MAP A17. ABOLITION AND RECONSTRUCTION

The object of these maps is to emphasize the problem of the reconstruction period. They therefore deal first with the process of liberating the negroes and making slavery illegal, and then with the controversies over political reconstruction and readmission of the seceding states into the Union. They show the period of reassertion by whites of their social and political leadership. Reconstruction was not a political problem only; there was also an economic readjustment. War and abolition destroyed much of the active wealth in the South, while the conditions under which reconstruction took place retarded economic recovery.

Abolition. The overthrow of slavery was accomplished by various means: federal law, federal proclamation, state action and federal constitutional amendment. The states colored purple on the map were free at the beginning of the Civil War. In 1862, Congress passed laws prohibiting slavery in the territories and the District of Columbia. Within the field of the map the territorial act applied to the unorganized region called Indian Territory and to Nebraska Territory. In the latter slavery had been a purely nominal system. Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation of January 1, 1863 was an exercise of his war power. It declared free the slaves in all the regions then in revolt against the federal government. Tennessee and portions of Louisiana and Virginia were excepted because these sections had been reconquered and were under Union military government. West Virginia was also excepted. The counties of this part of Virginia had refused to follow the rest of the state in secession and had set up a Union government, which resulted in formal separation and a new state admitted on June 19, 1863, with a constitution providing for gradual emancipation. In Virginia, Tennessee, Arkansas and Louisiana Union governments recognized by Lincoln but, except in the second, not in control of the state as a whole had, while the war was yet in progress, adopted constitutional amendments abolishing slavery. Maryland, by constitutional amendment, and Missouri, first by ordinance and then by amendment (neither state having seceded) became free; after the war was over, as a step in presidential reconstruction, the rest of the seceded states adopted amendments declaring slavery illegal. This was done, except in Texas, before the Thirteenth Amendment went into affect. That amendment of the Federal Constitution, while in general it made slavery impossible everywhere, in particular anticipated the Texan amendment, freed the slaves in Kentucky and Delaware, and made the gradual emancipation in West Virginia immediate. The number of slaves freed by these various measures is not known; the census of 1860 gives the nearest possible figures. These are shown on the map for each state.

Reconstruction. Congress refused to recognize the wartime reconstruction governments mentioned above. The one in Tennessee continued, however, and the state was readmitted without other organization after it ratified the Fourteenth Amendment. The rest of the reconquered states were placed under military government, and gradually reorganized and admitted under the Reconstruction Acts, which prescribed conditions that put the readmitted states under radical control, a combination made up largely of negroes and their white leaders, the so-called carpet-bag governments. Where the proportion of negroes in the population and the cotton crop were least, the conservative or white element generally recovered control more quickly. The means employed by the whites to put out the radicals were not all legal; the negroes were intimidated by organizations like the Ku Klux Klan, and there were many racial clashes. The principal areas affected by this movement were as follows: Memphis and New Orleans (1866); Mobile (1867); Camilla (1868); various parts of Tennessee (1869); North Carolina (1870); South Carolina (1871); Central Arkansas (1872); Brooks Baxter War in Arkansas, Cousmatta, La.; White League rising in New Orleans, Vicksburg (1874); Clinton (1875); Hamburg (1876). The states which did not secede are colored yellow. the bars in West Virginia show that this state was originally under secession government; its wartime admission made reconstruction unnecessary.

Cotton Production. In the mind of the ante-bellum Southerner, cotton and slavery were inseparable. The states which produced the greatest amount of the staple were also the strongest in slaves; thus, Mississippi and Alabama, which produced over 40% of the cotton in 1859, had almost 30% of the slave population in 1860 and half of their own population was slaves. In 1869 these states produced only 45% of their 1859 crop and only a third of the total crop. The same labor was there, but it was less available. The system under which it had previously produced had been destroyed and an efficient substitute not yet built up. Labor was demoralized, partly because of the political conditions. The areas showing an increase of cotton in 1869 produced but a small percentage of the total crop. They were generally in the sections where slavery had been less developed and the land less favorable for extensive production. In outlying regions such as Texas, western Arkansas and Florida the increase was largely due to new settlements. Tobacco was also an important Southern product, but this was not so completely determined by slavery.

Per Capita Wealth. The South had been the field of the war; not only had the active wealth been expended for military purposes but the movements of the armies and the raids had destroyed much of the landed property that, especially in an agricultural region, was necessary for the resumption of production. Also, the negroes had ceased to be wealth producers. Abolition had swept away the whole of their estimated value, as given on the map. They remained, of course, as possible laborers, but for the time being their value as wealth producers was much diminished. The South had always had less per capita wealth than the North, and the war emphasized the difference. The relation between the decrease in cotton production and the decrease in wealth, as well as the relation to the per capita wealth in 1870, is made evident by the maps. Note also the connection with the number of former slaves and the areas of army movements, as given on the map of the Civil War.

MAP A18. WESTERN STATEHOOD AND LAND GRANTS

In 1860 settlers had occupied the section of Nebraska Territory just beyond the Missouri and had settled also in the eastern part of Kansas. Beyond this area was the Far West, unoccupied except for hunters and trappers. On the Pacific slope, California and Oregon had attained statehood and settlement was rapidly increasing in these new states. Between 1860 and 1870 some 7,000,000 people (in addition to 250,000 Indians) occupied the territory between the Mississippi and the Pacific Coast. The discovery of gold in California in 1849 led to the invasion of the open areas of the west, and with the discovery of silver and gold in scattered regions the west attracted increasing numbers. In 1869 a great strike of silver was made at the Comstock Lode mine in Nevada. Gold was discovered in Montana and copper was found in Arizona. Colorado drew thousands in their search for the rich metals and the rich ores of the Black Hills drew great numbers. The great open stretches of the West were suitable for stock raising and in succeeding years great ranches covered the open spaces of the Far West. The growing scarcity of good land in the East sent many farmers to the

cheaper and better lands of the West and in time farming assumed considerable importance. This influx of hunter and trapper, miner, stock raiser and farmer in turn peopled the west. Settlements grew and some developed into cities. In 1860 the Far West had a definite territorial organization, but increasing population necessitated better organized and more representative government. Colorado, Nevada and Dakota were made territories in 1861. Arizona and Idaho were created territories in 1863 and further adjustments were made by the creation of Montana (1864) and Wyoming (1868) as territories. Further political development came with the recognition of statehood. Nevada was admitted to the Union in 1864, Nebraska in 1867, Colorado in 1876, North and South Dakota, Washington and Montana in 1889, Idaho and Wyoming in 1890, Utah in 1896, Oklahoma in 1907, and to complete the Union of 48 states Arizona and New Mexico became states in 1912. In 1860 transportation thru the Far West was by pack train, wagon and stage coach. Railroads had barely crossed the Mississippi, altho a railroad did reach St. Joseph on the Missouri. On the Pacific Coast a small beginning in railroad building was made in California. The first great improvement in transportation in the Far West came with the establishment of the Pony Express in 1860 between St. Joseph, Missouri, and Sacramento, California. Following the Pony Express came the telegraph, then the railroad.

Railroad Grants. If the West were to be developed rapidly transportation had to be improved. The Pacific Coast was far removed from the East, and with the idea of bringing the East and West in closer communication Congress in 1862 made great grants of public lands to aid in the building of certain specified railroads from Lake Superior, Omaha and Kansas City to the Pacific Coast. Railroad land grants had, however, been made in the Middle West before this date in order to aid the building of railroads. Their several conditions were as follows: (1) The system of aiding railroads, by granting them strips of public land along their line, began in 1850 when a grant was made to the state of Illinois to be transferred to the Illinois Central Railroad. (2) In this and most later grants was inserted the condition that the road must be completed within a specified time or else the grant would be forfeited. (3) In all the eastern grants the states received the lands and passed them on to the railroads. (4) The roads received the alternate "sections," that is, half of the mile square checkerboard units of the government surveys, within the belt of the grant. (5) The land grant was to extend a specified number of miles on each side of the track. (6) If any of these squares, which included half the area of the land within the belt, were already taken up the road might substitute equal areas in other government lands. (7) In a very few cases the government lent money to land grant railroads. Immense land grants were made in the Middle Western area. The only such grant in Illinois went to the Illinois Central; but there was a network of land grants in Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa and several grants in Missouri. Most of these were in timber or grain growing areas and hence of great value. In Indiana and Ohio the land was generally in private hands before the era of railroad grants began, but both states received early grants for roads and canals not shown on this map. Extensive land grants were offered also in the South, in Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana and Arkansas. None were offered in Texas because the lands there were retained by that state when it came into the Union; and none in Kentucky and Tennessee because there was practically no federal public land in those states. The most important group of land grants was the transcontinental grants for the four lines running to the Pacific Ocean; namely, (1) Union Pacific and Central Pacific, with which were connected the Kansas Pacific and branch lines from Plattsmouth, Atchison and Sioux City; (2) Northern Pacific; (3) Atlantic and Pacific—this line had a double width land grant thru New Mexico and Arizona but forfeited its California grant; (4) Texas Pacific, a grant outside of Texas which was later forfeited. A fourth group of land grants was for the California and Oregon lines: (1) Southern Pacific, from the Colorado River to San Francisco; (2) California and Oregon, from San Francisco to Portland; (3) Northern Pacific, from Portland to Tacoma.

The Indians. In the conquest of the Far West there was considerable trouble with the Indians, the original inhabitants of the continent. In 1862, 1866 and 1876 there were cases of open warfare between the Government forces and the Indians. Trouble with the Indians practically ceased in 1886. The peace policy adopted sought to settle the Indians on reservations. The Indian has been encouraged to hold individual ownership of land, make his own living, and gain an education. Indians living in tribes had not been allowed citizenship before 1924 but in that year citizenship was granted to all Indians in the United States. The Indian reservations are mostly in the West and Southwest. Only a few are east of the Mississippi.

MAP A19. LINES OF TRANSPORTATION

The development of transportation in the United States has been historically treated in various maps in this atlas. On Colonial Commerce map 7 is shown the principal Indian trails and the development of the colonial road system. On Westward Movement map 10 the further development of the roads of the East and Middle West up to 1829 is shown. This latter period saw the development of canals as a means of communication. The next period (1829–1860) illustrated on Land and Water Routes map 13, shows the decline of the canal as a means of transportation and the rise of the railroad, at least as far as the Eastern and Middle States were concerned. Beyond the Mississippi, lines of transportation thru the undeveloped and often unexplored Far West had yet to be developed. In this territory pack train, wagon, stage coach and "Pony Express" were still the means of communication between the East and the West. In 1829 the first railroad in United States was built; at the present day about 250,000 miles of railroad are in operation in the United States. As a means of transportation the railroads, especially for heavy freight, are still by far the principal agent of communication, but the development of the automobile has increased the use of road transportation and the progress of aviation has led to the chief centers of this country being connected with airplane service. Even the canal and river transportation, a dormant element in communication, is undergoing a new development. Map 19 is intended to show only the chief lines of railroad transportation, the movement of coastal sea traffic and the developed internal waterways. The map illustrates the chief trunk lines of the country and their points of concentration at Chicago, New York, St. Louis, Minneapolis and elsewhere. The great railroad systems of the United States have been built up by means of great consolidations. The leading system between the Atlantic seaboard and the Middle West is the New York Central Lines, connecting New York and Boston with Buffalo, Cleveland, Detroit, Chicago, St. Louis and other mid-west points. This route in part follows the pre-railroad routes from the seaboard to the interior. The Pennsylvania Lines is another trunk system connecting the Atlantic Coast with the Middle West. Beginning at New York it connects Philadelphia, Baltimore and Washington with points in the Middle West as far as Chicago. The Southern Railway serves part of the southern states. The Illinois Central, and Louisville and Nashville are the principal north and south lines connecting Chicago and southern points either directly or thru connecting lines. Other important roads in the territory east of the Mississippi are the Baltimore and Ohio, Erie, Wabash, Chesapeake and Ohio, Seaboard Air Line, Atlantic Coast Line, etc. In the Middle West, serving the territory mostly west of the Mississippi, we have the Chicago and North Western, Burlington, Rock Island and others. There is no coast-to-coast railroad system in the United States comparable to the great transcontinental system of Canada. The area of the United States west of the Mississippi is served by a number of great railroad systems. The Northwest is served by the Northern Pacific, Great Northern, and the Chicago, Milwaukee, St. Paul and Pacific. The direct route from Chicago to San Francisco is the Union Pacific connected on the east with the Chicago and North Western. The Union Pacific with the Central Pacific formed part of the first transcontinental system, completed in 1869. The two great systems serving the Southwest and linking the Middle West with the Pacific Coast are the Santa Fe and the Southern Pacific. The Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe runs from Chicago to San Francisco and Los Angeles. The Southern Pacific main line has its eastern terminal in New Orleans, runs west to Los Angeles and San Francisco, and north to Portland.

Internal Waterways. In previous maps, 10 and 13, the rise and decline of canals and waterways is traced. The changed economic order, new industrial conditions, geographical limitations of waterways, rise of new industrial centers and other causes led to the domination of the railroad and the consequent decline of the slower but relatively cheap water transportation. In recent years the Federal Government has spent great sums in a program of internal waterway improvement. The principal waterways in the United States are the Mississippi and its tributaries, the Ohio, New York Barge Canal and the Cape Cod Canal. Commerce on the Great Lakes has assumed tremendous proportions, the iron ore, coal and grain traffic being very large. In connection with future improvement on internal waterways, the St. Lawrence-Mississippi project offers interesting problems from a geographic and economic viewpoint. The connecting links of this project are well illustrated on the present map.

MAP A20. RESOURCES AND CONSERVATION

The economic progress of the United States has been very rapid. In the output of its mines, products of its forests, crops, manufactured goods, extent of railroads, volume of commerce and wealth, the United States has assumed a leading place among the nations of the world. The present map illustrates the larger phases of this development.

Agriculture. The pre-eminence of the United States in agriculture is due to various causes, among which may be mentioned great size of country, favorable climate, energy of people, freshness of soil, good transportation and convenient markets. No other country produces such a variety of products. The United States grows almost two-thirds of the world's corn crop, one-half of the cotton, one-third of the tobacco, one-fourth of the oats and one-fifth of the wheat. The present map shows the general distribution of the agricultural areas of the

United States; the actual distribution of crops is shown on map 22. The most productive agricultural areas are roughly east of the 100° meridian and in scattered sections on the Pacific Coast. The higher lands of the West, shown on the map as forests and grazing areas, are less productive in food crops but well adapted for stock raising and forest products.

Mineral Production. In importance the chief metal products are as follows: iron, copper, silver, lead, gold and zinc; the fuels: coal, oil and natural gas. Iron ore is widely distributed in the United States, but six-sevenths of the entire output comes from the western end of Lake Superior, principally Minnesota. Another large producing area is near Birmingham, Alabama. Only a small amount is produced west of the Mississippi River. In copper production the United States leads every other country, producing more than one-half the world's total output. Arizona, Utah and Montana are the leading copper producing states. The United States is not only the largest producer of lead but is also the largest consumer of lead in the world. Missouri and Idaho are the largest producing states, followed by Utah, Colorado and Oklahoma. The greatest deposits of zinc are found in the Joplin district, which includes adjacent parts of Missouri, Kansas and Oklahoma. Other producing states are New Jersey, Montana, Utah, Idaho and Colorado. The United States produces and consumes more zinc than any other country in the world. Gold and silver are mined extensively in the United States. In gold the United States ranks second to South Africa in world production. California and Colorado are the important gold producing states. As a silver producing country United States ranks second to Mexico in world production. Utah is the leading silver producing state. The United States is rich in coal resources. Coal is mined in 27 different states and half of all the known coal of the world is in the United States. A relatively small area in eastern Pennsylvania produces anthracite or hard coal (see map). The most important bituminous coal field is the Appalachian area which extends from Pennsylvania to Alabama. Seven states, including Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Illinois, Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana and Alabama, produce almost 90% of the total coal production. In oil production the United States is the chief world producer; over 70% of crude oil production comes from the United States. The Mid-continent and California fields are the chief producers. Other important areas are the Appalachian, Gulf Coast and Rocky Mountain regions. Economical transportation of the crude oil from the fields to refineries and industrial centers is made possible by an elaborate system of pipe lines. Associated with oil is natural gas.

Forests. When North America was first settled by the Europeans, forests covered half of its area. The rapid growth of population, the need for agricultural land, the use of wood for all kinds of purposes, the growth of the lumber industry and the export of all kinds of timber led to a great depletion of our forest resources. Two-thirds of our forest lands have been cut over or burned out and three-fifths of our merchandise timber has been used. The too rapid depletion of our forest resources has led to federal action in conserving the timber resources. Natural forests have been set apart on government-owned lands, mostly in the West (see map) and additional areas have been purchased in the Appalachian Mountains and the White Mountains for the development of national forests.

National Parks and Monuments. In line with the policy of conservation, the Federal Government has established national parks and monuments in order to preserve for the nation unusual natural phenomena. These reserved lands are mostly in the West but recently a few national parks have been established in the Eastern States. Yellowstone is the largest and oldest of our national parks. The Federal Government has also established Bird and Game Reserves to safeguard and preserve the wild life of certain areas.

Industrial Areas of the West. Owing to the fact that the large-scale map of Industrial United States (map 21) only shows the area east of the Mississippi, the industrial development of the West is shown on map 20. While the territory west of the Mississippi will always be largely agricultural, with lumbering, mining and stock raising as other industries, yet the growth of industrial and commercial centers in this area must be a necessary part of the development of the West. The growth of the Puget Sound cities, San Francisco, Los Angeles, Denver, Salt Lake City, Omaha, Kansas City and the cities on the Mid-continent and Gulf Coast oil fields all bears witness to the growing commercial and industrial interests of the West.

MAP A21. INDUSTRIAL UNITED STATES

The distribution of industry in Eastern United States is shown on this map. In no part of the world is there a more important industrial area. In the area bounded by Portland, Maine, Milwaukee, St. Louis and Baltimore is concentrated two-thirds of the manufacturing output of the United States. This area includes only one-tenth of United States but includes 19 of the 25 leading manufacturing centers. Some of the reasons for this concentration of manufacturing are (1) suitable climate, (2) access to two important bodies of water—the Atlantic and the Great Lakes; (3) great coal resources and abundant water power, (4) convenient supplies of iron ore, (5) abundant labor, capital and markets, (6) suitable soil—abundant food supplies—and raw materials in or adjacent to the area, (7) facing Europe, offering the area a market and in return a stream of settlers bringing with them a high civilization and skilled labor supply, (8) the momentum of an early start. New England, one of the most highly industrialized regions in the United States, has become chiefly identified with textiles, boots and shoes and metal work. New York City may be considered an industrial area by itself. Favored as the greatest importing and exporting city in United States, the financial and mercantile center of the nation, it also has great industries, especially in clothing and articles of wear. New York State has an important string of industrial centers along the Hudson and the New York Barge Canal. Industries are diversified but some of the cities have become identified with particular industries, as: Troy—collars; Utica—knitting and cotton mills; Schenectady—electrical machinery; Rochester—optical goods; Niagara Falls—electro-chemical industries, etc. The Philadelphia-Baltimore region has the important geographical advantages of good transportation facilities by land and sea and nearness to coal fields. The region of Pennsylvania with its anthracite coal, early advantage in iron ore mining and ample coking coal resources is the principal area in the working of iron and steel. Pittsburgh is the great center of this industry. Ohio, because of its strategic location, accessibility to the Great Lakes, and important resources of coal and oil, has developed great industrial centers like Cleveland, Toledo, Youngstown and Cincinnati. The Michigan industrial area includes Detroit, the center of the automobile industry. The Chicago region is one of the most important industrial areas in the United States. Unrivalled in its position in the great Middle West, the center of the railroad systems of United States, easy accessibility to raw materials of all kinds, this region manufactures all kinds of goods. Chicago is the greatest slaughtering and meat packing center in the world. Adjacent to Chicago are the steel plants of Gary and other cities which bid fair to rival those of Pittsburgh. Minneapolis and St. Paul—the Twin Cities—constitute a small industrial region by themselves. Minneapolis is the great flour milling center of the world. Located at the strategic meeting place of five river routes, which now may be of less consequence than formerly, St. Louis has become the center of a region highly productive in manufacturing, which is of a diversified nature and adapted to the needs of the region. The Southern States, formerly more interested in agriculture than in manufacturing, have in recent years increased greatly in manufactures, especially in the Piedmont region of the Carolinas and Georgia. This development is due to the increase of cotton manufacturing in these states. New Orleans, Birmingham and Atlanta are the chief industrial centers of the South.

Textile Industries. The distribution of textile industries is shown on map A. The manufacture of textiles is one of the major industries of the United States. Cotton manufacturing was for many years located chiefly in New England but the South has in recent years greatly increased its capacity. Wool manufacturing is chiefly located in New England. In order of their volume the leading states are Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, New York, Connecticut and Rhode Island. Silk manufacturing is chiefly centered in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, New York and Connecticut.

MAP A22. AGRICULTURAL UNITED STATES

On the map Resources and Conservation, the general distribution of land utilization of the United States is shown. On the present map the principal crop regions are indicated. The size of the country with its great area of good soil is one of the favorable factors in making the United States a great agricultural country. Other favorable factors are suitable climate, fresh soil and good transportation facilities. Corn is the most important crop in the United States. It is grown by more farmers, occupies more land, and has a greater total value than any other crop. Corn is widely distributed; the chief area of production is the strip of land extending from central Ohio to Nebraska, a strip about 200 miles wide and 800 miles long. Cotton is the most important cash crop in the United States after corn. It is grown in the Southern States. Wheat is the third most important crop and is grown generally in the Northern States. North Dakota and Kansas are the leading wheat states. Associated with wheat growing is the flour milling industry. The modern process of flour milling tended to the elimination of the small local mills, and with the movement of the wheat belt to the West the milling centers located in the West. Buffalo and New York have remained important milling centers. Minneapolis, however, is the leading flour milling center. Other important centers are Kansas City, Chicago, St. Louis, Duluth, Louisville, Toledo and Detroit. Seattle is an important milling center on the Pacific Coast. Oats, while considerably larger than the wheat crop, is very much less important. It is a leading crop in the North Central States. Rye is grown on the more sandy areas of the North Central and Middle Atlantic States but is not very important. Barley is also relatively unimportant as a cereal crop in the United States. It is grown chiefly in the Dakotas, Minnesota, Wisconsin and the Pacific Coast. Potatoes

are grown generally over United States, altho half the potatoes grown come from New York, Michigan, Wisconsin, Maine, Pennsylvania and Minnesota. The United States is the largest producer of tobacco in the world. Kentucky leads and is followed by North Carolina and Virginia. Sugar production in the United States has its source in sugar beets and sugar cane. The greater part of sugar beet production comes from the West and is grown under irrigation. Colorado and Michigan are the leading producers. Utah and California also have large production. Cane sugar production in the United States is practically limited to Louisiana where are found the proper conditions for its cultivation. Of the six leading orchard fruits grown in this country, apples are the most important. The chief apple regions are western New York, southern Michigan, uplands of Virginia, Ozark region of Missouri, Arkansas and Washington. Citrus fruits are grown extensively in California, Florida and Arizona. In the animal industries, the United States plays a leading part. Beef cattle are raised in every part of the United States but are most numerous in the upper Mississippi Valley, the Great Plains and in parts of Texas. Swine are also generally raised in the United States but half of the total is found in the Corn Belt States where corn is fed to the swine. Iowa is the leading hog-raising state. United States is second only to Australia in number of sheep raised. Sheep are particularly adapted to the dry lands of the Western States. Ohio is the leading eastern state in raising sheep. Associated with the animal industries are the slaughtering and meat-packing centers. These centers are mainly in the Central States. Chicago is the great slaughtering and packing center. The dairy industry in the United States is quite general, being associated with population. Certain areas, however, are specially favored. New York, with its favorable climate and topography, and accessible markets, used to be the chief dairying state but has now yielded this honor to Wisconsin. The cultivation of the dry but fertile lands of the West has led to extensive irrigation development. These irrigated lands produce mostly alfalfa, with fruit, cereals, sugar beets and cotton as other products. For convenience the principal fisheries of the United States are shown on this map.

MAP A23. UNITED STATES IN THE CARIBBEAN

Towards the close of the nineteenth century the United States had taken an increasing interest in foreign affairs. In the Pacific she had already taken some decisive positions. In 1820 Monroe had issued his famous announcement regarding American rights in the Western Hemisphere. Spain had gradually lost control of the vast area formerly under her regime. Cuba, Porto Rico and a few lesser islands alone remained to Spain. In 1868 rebellion broke out in Cuba, smoldered for some years, and finally peace was secured on promises of reform. As Spain did not redeem her promises, rebellion broke out again in 1895. Cuba was of intense interest to the United States. Located in a commanding position to the Gulf of Mexico and the proposed Isthmian Canal, as well as its commercial relations, as a menace in breeding yellow fever, Cuba was an important factor in the foreign policies of the United States. As a result of local conditions in Cuba and the expressed sympathies of United States to the native Cubans, the attempt to reach an agreement with Spain over reforms in Cuba was brought to an end by the Maine incident. War resulted and with it Spain lost Cuba, Porto Rico, Guam and the Philippines. As a result of the war the United States increased its prestige among the world's nations. The new situation in Cuba and Porto Rico gave the United States a commanding position in the Caribbean, especially in relation to the Isthmian Canal project. Cuba was made a republic in 1902. Certain privileges with regard to treaty rights, debts, intervention and naval stations were granted to United States under the treaty with Cuba. While the treaty grants Cuba the position of an independent nation, yet the limitations imposed by the United States practically make Cuba a protectorate of the United States. Porto Rico, after the conclusion of the Spanish-American War, became a territory of the United States. The so-called "doctrine of paramount interest" of the United States in the Caribbean has led this country to pursue an interested policy in that region. This policy has resulted in direct intervention by the United States in Caribbean affairs where its interests seem to be endangered. The boundary dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela led the United States to adopt a positive attitude on European intervention and altho Great Britain secured the major part of her demands the settlement did show the power of the United States in South America. As early as 1845 the United States became interested, thru treaty with Colombia, in gaining the right of transport across the Isthmus of Panama. In 1901 the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty with Great Britain settled the right of the United States to build and operate the canal. Aroused over the delay attendant upon negotiations between the United States and Colombia on the canal issue, the state of Panama declared its independence on November 3, 1903. The new republic was recognized by the United States a few days later. On November 18, the republic of Panama granted to the United States, for a consideration, the area now called the Canal Zone. The payment of $25,000,000 to Colombia in 1923 by the United States was for use of Colombia property and clear titles to the physical properties of the canal. By its policy of general supervision, Panama may be said to be practically a protectorate of the United States. Opened to commerce in 1914, the Panama Canal has more than justified its building. The canal has established a short and cheap water route between the Atlantic and Pacific seaboards of the United States; it has also provided shorter routes between many world ports; and by bringing the Atlantic ports into shorter connection with the west coast of South America has increased trade and commerce between these points. It has been a means also of developing better relations with these Latin American peoples. The significance of the Panama Canal is vividly brought out on the map by the converging sea routes from all points. With our acquisition of the Panama Canal, our interest in the peace and stability of the Caribbean area became paramount. In 1907 the pressure of Italy and France regarding debts owed by the Dominican Republic became so threatening that the United States intervened. Again in 1914 the political situation in the republic required the services of the United States, whose military occupation lasted until 1924. In the adjoining republic of Haiti the unsettled conditions prompted United States to intervene in 1915. By a treaty with Haiti the United States has assumed control of the republic's finances and police. In 1914 following a period of revolution in Mexico, the United States was led to occupy Vera Cruz from April 21 to November 23, 1914. Conditions in Nicaragua have in recent years been no less turbulent than in some of the other Central American republics. Previous to 1912 the United States was concerned in Nicaraguan affairs, but in 1912 the president of the republic invited United States forces to occupy Nicaragua on the plea of protection of foreign interests and property. This occupation still continues. The Caribbean is in every sense now an American lake. Occupation, financial control and the other forces of "paramount interest" have made the United States a great power in Caribbean affairs. This policy has grown out of the needs for maintaining political and financial stability. Except for a minority, this policy appears to be the accepted policy of all parties in the United States. The acquisition of the Virgin Islands from Denmark in 1917 for a sum of $25,000,000 was one more step in consolidating our position in the Caribbean.

MAP A24. GREATER UNITED STATES

The growth of the United States into a world power is illustrated on this map. Beginning as a small group of states strung along the Atlantic Coast, it had by 1783 reached the Mississippi. By 1853 the present continental area of the United States was complete. The first territorial acquisition outside of Continental United States was made in 1867 by the purchase of Alaska from Russia. Before the conclusion of the Spanish-American War, the Hawaiian Islands, formerly a native kingdom and later a republic (1894), were annexed by the United States in August 1898. From a strategic point of view the possession of the Hawaiian Islands gives to the United States a unique position in Pacific affairs. The conclusion of the Spanish-American War gave to the United States the island of Guam, the Philippines and Porto Rico. The acquisition of the Philippines in a sense made the United States an Asiatic power and imposed on her her first great experiment in colonial administration. In the Samoan Islands the United States had interests as early as 1878. Occupied under a "tripartite" agreement by Great Britain, Germany and the United States, the islands were the scene of native wars and international misunderstandings. In 1900 a new agreement was reached whereby Great Britain retired from the islands. Germany was granted control over Western Samoa and the United States assumed control over Tutuila and other eastern islands. In 1914 German Samoa was captured by New Zealand, of which it is now a mandate. Guam, obtained from Spain in 1898, is of great value as a naval station. With the growing importance of the Pacific as an area of international activity, the possession of these various island groups is going to be increasingly significant to the United States. The awakening of the Eastern powers—Japan, Russia and China on the western fringe of the Pacific—has brought the United States into direct relations with these powers concerning Pacific problems. The Caribbean possessions have been described under map 23. While the United States must consider her island possessions from a strategic point of view under the present condition of international relations, yet it is in a trade and commercial point of view that her present interests are mostly concerned. The lines of sea traffic, see map 24, give some indication of the relative importance of trade to various points. The map brings out in a striking manner the significance of the Panama Canal as a world trade route and as a connecting link between the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of the United States.

MAP A25. POPULATION DENSITY 1790–1870

The growth and distribution of the population of the United States during the first eighty years of the republic is shown on this series of nine maps. The dates chosen are those of each decennial census, the

first of which was taken in 1790. The map of 1790 shows population massed near tidewater as it had been thruout colonial times. An almost continuous belt of well populated country stretches from New Hampshire to Maryland. This area has continued to be the most densely populated region in the United States. In 1800 the frontier had advanced westward. By 1810 the occupation of the Ohio Valley had become complete and considerable settlement had occurred along the Mississippi at St. Louis and north from New Orleans. The South had lagged behind the North in increasing population, but it is apparent the South was also experiencing the forward movement of population. At this period the most striking feature of the trend of population was the control of settlement by rivers. The Ohio, Red, Mississippi and Arkansas were bordered by settlements. While the frontier by 1820 had continued its westward march, settlement had tended to fill in certain areas. The influence of routes from the East is illustrated by the belt of settlement extending from western New York. Most of the population of this time was located east of the Appalachians, which acted as a barrier to the movement of population. The settled area in southwestern Pennsylvania indicates the attractions of the Monongahela Valley. The large area of settlement in north central Kentucky is the famous Blue Grass region. In central Tennessee a large settlement had located in a region of rich soils using the Cumberland River as a highway. By 1830 settlement had extended beyond the Mississippi. During this period the effect of better communication with the East by roads and canals was noticeable in the expansion of the population. A comparison of the map of 1820 with that of 1830 shows the effect of the Erie Canal on the north and the Cumberland Road on the south in distributing people west of the mountains. While this westward movement was progressing, other parts of the country were becoming more densely populated, especially in New England and the area from New York to Baltimore. By 1840 the country east of the Mississippi was well settled, except for some areas in the Appalachians, Adirondacks and northern Maine. In this decade Illinois, Missouri, Arkansas and lower Michigan added considerable settlement. Between 1840 and 1850 the frontier did not advance very much, except in eastern Texas. The building of railroads now began to affect the expansion of the population. By 1850 railroads had been built across the Appalachians from the larger cities of the East. Increase of population was not only by natural increase of native population; the country was now receiving a large number of immigrants who mainly settled in the North. In 1860 the first extension of population beyond Missouri had taken place. Considerable increase of population in Texas was also evident. Population had also expanded in Wisconsin and southern Minnesota. On the Pacific Coast the discovery of gold had brought a large group of adventurers, which in time led to considerable settlement. The continued extension of railroads in this period had a great influence in the expansion of the population. By 1870 a gradual extension of the frontier line westward had taken place. The opening of the first railroad to the Pacific in 1869 led to settlement along its route, likewise along other newly constructed railroads. In the Far West may be noted three belts of settlement. The most eastern was located in New Mexico and Colorado. Attracted to this area by the discovery of minerals, settlers remained to develop this area which proved attractive because of its richness of soil and abundance of water for irrigation. The next strip of settlement was in Utah, settled by the Mormons in 1847. The settlement on the Pacific Coast owed its existence to the mining industry which in 1849 attracted a considerable immigration to the region. The suitability of the region for agriculture led to permanent settlement. In this series of maps the growth of urban population is indicated by the largest towns for each decade.

MAP A26. POPULATION DENSITY, 1880–1910

In the four decades shown on this map there is represented the remarkable story of the settlement of the area west of the Missouri and the Arkansas rivers. In 1880 the western frontier lay to the east of the 100 meridian. In the Far West settlement lay in three separated areas in New Mexico and Colorado, Utah, and the Pacific Coast. By 1890 settlement had gone beyond the 100 meridian and the three settled areas of the Far West showed considerable expansion. In this period Oklahoma was created a territory, and settlement in this area is shown for the first time. Altho the total population for 1900 showed a considerable increase over the previous decade, in many parts of the West there was an increase of unsettled area due to such causes as unsuitable agricultural conditions and working out of minerals. Population, however, continued to move westward, and by 1900 the separation of the earlier settlements of the west was growing less noticeable. From 1900 on the west has grown rapidly, the rate of increase being greater west of the Mississippi than in the Eastern States. The development of irrigation, dry farming and mining increased transportation, and the growth of commercial and industrial centers have been some of the factors in the rapid growth of the West. The opening up of Oklahoma and Indian Territory in 1890 led to a continuous increase of population, until by 1910 this area is one of the most settled parts of the West.

Growth of Population. Beginning with a population of 5,308,483 in 1800, the United States nearly doubled its population each twenty-year period. In the century from 1800 to 1900 the population increased about 15 times. In considering the distribution of population it is worth noting that the ratio of urban to rural population has been constantly increasing. In 1790 the population of the United States was almost entirely rural, with no large cities. From 1820 on the urban population increased until in 1880 nearly 23% of the nation's population was urban, and in 1920 it had reached nearly 44%. One of the important factors in the development of our country has been the influx of immigrants. From the small total of 143,000 in 1821–1830, the inflow of people reached its greatest height in the period 1901–1910 when almost nine million entered the United States.

MAP A27. POPULATION DENSITY 1920

From 1910 to 1920 the United States experienced very unusual conditions. Altho the total population increased, the effects of war slackened immigration and a large outflow of former immigrants to their homelands showed itself in the geographical distribution of the people. In earlier censuses the slackened westward movement has been noted. Geographical movements of population seemed in this decade to be dependent on industrial development. The Mountain and Pacific areas continued to show higher percentages of increase than other parts of the country, but compared with earlier decades the years 1910–1920 showed a decrease. As the period 1910–1920 showed a great industrial expansion especially during the war period, 1914 to 1918, it was natural to expect a decided increase in the population in the industrial states of Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, Michigan and Wisconsin. This was the only area in the country which exceeded in 1910–1920 the rate of increase of 1900–1910. In the Southern States the rate of increase was greatly reduced, due in large measure to the considerable northward migration of Negroes during the war period. During the first 70 years (1790 to 1860) there was a fairly uniform increase in population of about one-third every ten years. During this period the United States was in the pioneer stage and the family was its most important institution. Land was plentiful, agriculture was the chief occupation, and life was simple. With the coming of the Civil War these conditions were changed. The growth of inventions and industrial progress changed the social life, and notwithstanding the large immigration the rate of increase continued to decline. This decline was halted during 1901–1910 by a very large immigration. The maps show the rise of the cities for each decade. In 1790 there were but six cities with more than 8,000 inhabitants. In 1920 cities having over 8,000 inhabitants had increased to 924 and more than one-half of the population lived in cities having over 2,500 inhabitants. This growing urbanization has led to the growth of huge cities. In 1920 New York, Chicago and Philadelphia exceeded the million mark while Detroit almost reached one million inhabitants. In the decade 1920–1930 city growth has been accentuated.

Center of Population. At each decennial census the "center of population" is determined. It is a point upon which the United States would balance, if it were a rigid plane without weight and the population distributed thereon, each individual being assumed to have equal weight and to exert an influence on the central point proportionate to his distance from the point. This pivotal point therefore would be its center of gravity and is the point referred to by the term used in the census as "center of population." In early years, with the larger part of the population located east of the Appalachians, the center of population was in the East. As the West filled up the center of population moved to the West. On the map the center of population of 1790 was east of Baltimore. In 1920 it was located in Indiana.

MAP A28. UNITED STATES LAND SURVEY

The whole area of the United States, except the original states in the Union, Kentucky and Tennessee, Texas and part of Ohio, has been subject to rectangular survey. The excepted regions, shown in yellow on the map, were wholly subdivided under Colonial and State charters, grants and settlements. In no part of that area have United States surveyors been called upon to draw lines or to define lands intended for gift or sale. The remainder of the country has been subdivided by surveyors acting under the statutes of Congress. The plan of subdivision will be considered later. The point is that the broad red lines on the map indicate basal north and south, and east and west lines of survey, upon which as a basis eventually are drawn the boundaries of townships.

History of the System. This method of land survey was practiced in some of the New England colonies where occasionally a square six miles on each of its four sides was set aside as a basis for a town. In the Pontiac war, about 1764, a Swiss officer named Bouquet proposed a rectangular plan of survey. This attracted the attention of Thomas Jefferson who introduced the plan into a land ordinance in 1784 which never took effect. A large part of Ohio was settled by Congressional land grants made to companies holding territories with

irregular boundaries, or as Virginia bounty lands. The northeastern part of Ohio was controlled by Connecticut, which introduced its own system of townships five miles square. The rest of the state was settled in six-mile square townships which conformed to a base line drawn east and west and to a "first principal meridian." As the country settled up, more base lines and principal meridians were laid all the way west to the Mississippi. The same system was applied to Alabama and Mississippi, and was followed out all the way across to the Pacific Coast. Various elements, some geographic, others connected with the settlement of the regions, influenced the amount of land surveyed from each meridian.

Drawbacks of the System. This method proved difficult. These lines were laid out not on a flat plain but on the curving face of the great globe, the earth. Hence the principal meridians approached as they went northward. The lines could not be marked by permanent monuments; usually wooden stakes were all that could be shown; so it was difficult to locate a tract which had been duly surveyed. Furthermore, the geographic straight lines did not fit in with the contour of a great part of the interior in which the streams flow from northeast to southwest or northwest to southeast. In the running lines many sections were cut in two by water courses. Nevertheless, the land system had the great advantage of making it easy to purchase a fixed quantity of land, with boundaries which in most cases could be ascertained.

System of Subdivision of Land. The inset on this map shows the method of dividing into tracts that could be used for farms. Every normal section was surveyed into thirty-six so-called sections, numbered back and forth as shown in the inset. Each of these square miles contained 640 acres, or a total of 23,040 acres in a whole township. A square mile, however, might be subdivided into halves or quarters or eighths. The quarter section areas of 160 acres came to be thought of as a normal farm. Many soldiers' and homestead grants were made in units of 160 acres.

MAP A29.
PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1796–1820

Maps 29 to 35 inclusive illustrate the series of Presidential elections from 1796 to 1924. These maps show first the division of electoral votes by parties and secondly by graphs the number of electoral and popular votes. Many political and constitutional questions turn upon the grouping of political forces which are made clear in these maps. Thruout the series the blue color represents in general, the groups of voters who incline to a conservative frame of mind. The pink stands for the more aggressive school of thought, looking rather to the interests of individual voters than to groups. In the early maps, therefore, the blue color represents the Federalists, the first conservative party, down to the exit of that party from the political scene after the election of 1820. The blue reappears in 1824, for the Adams voters. The Whig party is represented by the blue color from 1836 thru the election of 1852. From that time to 1924 the blue color indicates the Republican party. The pink blocks stand in 1796 for a party grouped about Thomas Jefferson, for some years called the Republican or the Republican-Democratic party. From 1824 to 1828 the force that held these voters together was Andrew Jackson and his political principles. In 1832 they took on the name Democratic and from that time on there has always been a Democratic party in national elections. Third party candidates are represented by other colors. In 1824, 1832 and 1860 there were electoral votes for a fourth candidate. From 1864 to 1888 no electoral votes were cast except for Republican and Democratic candidates. In 1892 a small Populist vote was shown, and in 1912 the Progressive party appeared. In 1924 the state of Wisconsin took on the Progressive color for the time. The colors in the graphs of summary of votes correspond with the colors of the little graphs of popular votes in each state. Territories not participating in the elections are colored yellow.

System of Presidential Elections. The maps are graphic representations of electoral laws and practices. Under the Constitution of the United States the President and Vice-President are elected every four years by what was intended to be the personal judgment of electors chosen in each state. In the first contested election for president (1796) this system broke down, for most of the electors were chosen with the expectation that they would vote for a particular candidate. This inaugurated the custom that tho the voters cast their ballots for a ticket of electors in each state they really vote for the candidate whom those electors are previously pledged to support. Under the Constitution the electors may be chosen by the legislatures, in which case the electors will usually all vote for the same man. A second legal method is for states to subdivide themselves into electoral districts. A third method of choosing electors is by popular vote of the qualified voters in the state for a ticket comprising the whole number of electors. This has now become universal.

Historical Significance of Presidential Elections. Under the presidential electoral system it is possible for a president to be chosen who has fewer popular votes than a defeated candidate. Since the popular votes began to be counted in 1824, there have been several small minority presidents having fewer popular votes than a defeated adversary.

Elections of 1789 and 1792. No maps for these two elections have been prepared because in both of them every electoral vote was cast for George Washington. John Adams received less than a majority of the electoral votes for the vice-presidency in 1789, but more than anybody else; under the Constitution as it then stood he was elected. In 1792 Adams had a clear majority of all the votes for vice-president.

Election of 1796. In this election all New England, most of the Middle States and some scattering votes in southern states voted, as the blue color shows, for John Adams for President. Most of the southern votes were for Jefferson. This sectional preference appears in all the electoral maps thru 1816.

Election of 1800 and 1801. In 1800 the voting states were the same as in the previous election. Under the Constitution a majority of all the electoral votes was necessary. In case of no majority, the House of Representatives was to make the choice, each state representation casting one vote. Since all the Republican and Democratic electors voted for both Jefferson and Burr, there was a technical tie, and nobody was elected. It therefore fell to the House of Representatives in 1801 to choose between them. In that House the states having a Federalist majority were more numerous than the states having Republican-Democratic majorities. Hence, the Federalists were obliged to choose between two men, both of whom were their political opponents. The result is shown in the map for 1801. South Carolina was tied and cast no vote. The votes of the other states are shown by the initials "J" for Jefferson or "B" for Burr. Thru the influence of Alexander Hamilton and others, enough Federal states voted for Jefferson to give him the presidency. This incident led to the adoption of the Twelfth Amendment in 1804, under which the electors voted for President and Vice-President separately.

Election of 1804. This election was a walk-over for Jefferson. A new state appears on this map, namely Ohio, which entered the Union in 1803. The three western states found themselves in political agreement with their parent states immediately to the east.

Election of 1808. The "Virginia Dynasty," as it was sometimes called, passed the presidency on from Jefferson to Madison, and in 1816 from Madison to Monroe. The almost complete return of New England to the Federalist camp was connected with the attitude of Jefferson toward American commerce, which was suffering in the European naval wars.

Election of 1812. This split was emphasized in the election of 1812, which was very closely connected with the controversy over war with England. The former Federalist states and New York vainly united with some other small states to support DeWitt Clinton.

Election of 1816. Vermont had been loosened from the Federalists in 1804 and in 1816 was joined by New Hampshire and Rhode Island, leaving only Massachusetts, Connecticut and Delaware in the slender Federal column. Indiana was the only new state in this period and it sided with its neighbor states; it had not been formally admitted at the time of the popular vote. The same is true of Missouri in 1820 and Michigan in 1836.

Election of 1820. During the four years from 1816 to 1820 tremendous changes occurred in the map of the Union. Alabama, Mississippi, Illinois, Missouri and Maine were added to the voting states, the latter two by the famous Missouri Compromise of 1820. This was the only election in the history of the United States (except the two choices of Washington in 1789 and 1792) in which the vote was practically unanimous. To look at the map one would suppose that there was universal harmony and only one set of political doctrines. What actually happened was that the Federalist party was dead, and for the time no serious controversies divided the nation.

MAP A30.
PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1824–1844

Election of 1824. This is the famous go-as-you-please-election in which there were no parties. The Federalist organization was gone. The former Democratic-Republican party had taken over many of the Federalist ideas. For the first and last time in the history of the United States the struggle was personal between four candidates, John Quincy Adams, Jackson, Crawford and Clay. This was the first presidential election in which the number of popular votes was tabulated and printed, tho by a private publication. The total popular votes were about 350,000, of which Jackson got about 150,000 and Adams only about 100,000. The Jackson men insisted that Jackson was the moral victor, altho he polled considerably less than a majority of either popular or electoral votes. In any case, under the Constitution there was no election.

Election of 1825. In this crisis the choice had to be made by the House of Representatives voting by states as in 1801. The House had been elected in 1822 with no suggestion of such a task and was split from top to bottom. The delegates of the New England States, Illinois

(Continued on page XVII)

and Missouri were solid for Adams—eight states. In five more—Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, New York and Ohio—he had the majority of the delegations for him, giving him thirteen states and the election. Jackson got Indiana and four southern states; Crawford got majorities in the four remaining states. It is evident from a glance at the map that this was not a sectional choice.

Election of 1828. Next came the regular election of 1828 in which Jackson was triumphantly elected over Adams by an electoral vote of 178 to 83. One of the interests of the contest was that Calhoun, who had been easily elected vice-president in 1824, was put on the ticket with Jackson as vice-president, was again elected, and was expected to succeed Jackson when he should be ready to go out of the presidency.

Election of 1832. The Adams voters in 1828 were not all former Federalists; in fact, his friends began to take the name of National-Republicans. In 1832 Henry Clay, one of the candidates in 1824, was nominated by the National Republican party—and Jackson was put up by his friends and supporters thruout the Union, who began to call themselves Democrats.

Election of 1836. Four years later the Jackson men were strongly assembled in support of Van Buren, who was his personal nominee. He was backed by a distinct Democratic party. The opposing votes were divided between several Whigs: Harrison (seventy-three), Massachusetts voted for Webster (fourteen), and White of Tennessee carried that state and Georgia (twenty-six). Out of a million and a half votes cast, the opposition to Jackson totalled 737,000 against 762,000 for Van Buren. Two things should be especially noted in this election. The first is the formation of a block of interior states extending from the Lakes to Kentucky and Tennessee and taking in other southern states, which had considerable influence in the elections of the next ten years. The other point is the building up of a great vote west of the mountains. Arkansas was admitted in 1836, but the great growth of this new power was in Indiana, Kentucky and Tennessee.

Election of 1837. In the confusion of candidates, no Vice-President was elected and therefore under the Constitution it became the duty of the Senate in 1837 to fill that vacancy. The division of parties as shown by the map more clearly points out which were the Whig states and which were the Democratic on the map of 1836. Johnson was chosen over Granger by a decisive vote.

Election of 1840. This election was much affected by a factor which cannot be stated on a map. By 1840 both Whigs and Democrats had a regular system of national nominating conventions, made up of delegates from the states. The map does show the tidal wave for the candidate of that party, General Harrison of Ohio, the first northwestern candidate. The map shows that he carried the whole of New England (except New Hampshire), a tier of northern states as far west as Illinois and in addition Kentucky and Tennessee—which long remained strongholds of the Whig party—and several far southern states. The development of Democratic states still farther west was significant. Again, tho the Harrison electoral votes were about four times as numerous as those for Van Buren, the popular vote of the Democratic party as against the Whigs was in the proportion of eleven to thirteen. This is because of large Democratic votes in Whig states.

Election of 1844. By this time the Whigs had developed a policy of large national enterprises, especially a protective tariff and a national bank, both strongly opposed by the Democrats. To these lines of division was added the issue of the annexation of Texas, which was the turning point in the election of 1844. The stronghold of the Whigs, as before, was in New England, Ohio, Kentucky and Tennessee (Polk's state). Tho the popular vote was very close, Polk carried New York and Pennsylvania, the belt of most southerly states, and all the great northwestern states except Ohio. Polk, as soon as he became President, participated in the annexation of Texas.

MAP A31.
PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1848–1860

We have now reached the point where a new factor was added to the presidential elections, by the rapid growth of the western, northwestern and southwestern states. These additions included four related areas. The first was the Louisiana Purchase of 1803, which pushed the national boundary westward to the Rocky Mountains. The second was the exploration of Oregon by Lewis and Clark in 1805, which gave title as far as the Pacific. The third was the annexation of Texas in 1845, which was held to include all the territory as far west as the Rio Grande. The fourth was the vast area between the Rio Grande and the Pacific Ocean, including California which was conquered in 1846 and 1847 and added to the Union by the treaty with Mexico in 1848. In the four elections between 1848 and 1860 we see the beginning of far-western and Pacific state groups which came finally to turn several presidential elections.

Election of 1848. At the time of this election Polk was still president, a strong and very successful Democrat. The annexation of Texas brought in population large enough to cast four electoral votes for President. The states of Wisconsin, Florida and Iowa were also added to the Union. The issue in 1848 was a military Whig against a straight Democrat; and the map shows the largest extension of Whig influence, tho upper New England was obstinately Democratic. The main Democratic strength was in four of the southern states and in the Northwest, the Democratic candidate being Cass, a Michigan man. The Whigs easily elected General Taylor of Louisiana. The issues were partly questions of banks and public lands and the tariff, but especially the frame of mind of the population toward extension of power and territory of the Pacific.

Election of 1852. The great and proud Whig party at the next election was beaten out of existence. General Taylor died early in his term of office (1850) and was succeeded by Vice-President Fillmore of New York. The real question that aroused the people of the country was slavery. It was brought to the front by the annexation of Texas as a slave state in 1845, by the pushing of territory to the Pacific Coast in 1848 in latitudes where slavery was possible, and by the Compromise of 1850 which was an attempt to settle the question as to whether slavery should be introduced into the new territories. One of the features in this election was the anti-slavery vote. This is to be traced first in the election of 1844 where 62,000 "Liberty" votes were cast by uncompromising anti-slavery men. In 1848 the Free Soilers, opposed to any extension of slavery to new territory, joined with Van Buren who bolted from the Democratic party, and cast nearly 300,000 votes, withdrawing enough Democratic votes from New York so that Taylor carried it and got the election. In 1852 they reorganized as the Free Democrats, making it clear that all anti-slavery men were by no means Whigs. One of the dramatic episodes of the period was the admission of California in 1850 as a free state, made so by the action of its own state convention.

Election of 1856. When in 1854 the Kansas-Nebraska Act was passed, party lines were almost destroyed for the time being. The map of 1856 portrays a northern anti-slavery party as against the Democrats who had become a pro-slavery party. This was brought about by the organization in 1855 of a Republican party, formed on a basis of opposition to any further extension of slavery. State and national politics were much affected by the Know Nothing or Native American party, which many Whigs joined. The Republican party was not the Whig party over again, for it included a large number of anti-slavery Democrats. The Whigs preserved an organization under the name of Whig-National American which carried only the state of Maryland. The Republicans cast 1,335,000 votes for their candidate, Fremont; but Buchanan of Pennsylvania received 1,838,000 Democratic votes and was elected. This looks like a triumph, but the "Know Nothings" with the remnant of the Whig party, which would not support a Democrat or unite with the Republicans tho they carried only one state, cast nearly 900,000 votes.

Election of 1860. Hence in the election of 1860, the Republicans returned to the conflict with greater hopes. Two new states had been admitted, viz., Oregon and Minnesota, both of which proved to be Republican. The map shows that the Republican party was a northern organization, altho there were some Republican votes in Kentucky, Tennessee and Missouri. The Democrats, on the other hand, were divided; and the old Whigs in the central states of Virginia, Kentucky and Tennessee took up Bell of Tennessee as a candidate. The Democrats split in their convention of 1860, the intense defenders of slavery nominating Breckinridge. A more moderate branch put up Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois, who was a leading western Democrat. It is commonly said that if the Democrats could have acted together, and particularly if the remnant of the southern Whigs would have acted with them, they could have carried the country against Abraham Lincoln of Illinois, the Republican candidate. Under the electoral machinery as it stood, and taking into account the sentiments of all the voters in the United States with regard to slavery which was the main issue, the election of Lincoln could not have been prevented by any coalition against him.

MAP A32.
PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1864–1876

The four maps on this page cover the elections of the Civil War and the Reconstruction periods, and show the slow rebuilding of a Democratic party. The Republican party remained strong north of the Ohio River, and took over the new western states as they were admitted; but in 1876 Connecticut, New York, New Jersey and Indiana were Democratic. The four maps show the Republican party gradually losing part of its force in the North, just as the southern states returned to their Democratic preference.

Election of 1864. In 1864 every northern state except New Jersey and every Pacific Coast state including the new state of Nevada was Republican; every southern state that had seceded was in armed conflict against the national government and not capable of taking part in a national election. Lincoln was re-elected. The new state of Kansas was Republican.

Election of 1868. One additional state came in before 1868, viz., Nebraska. The non-voting southern states were reduced to Virginia, Mississippi and Texas; but the new state of West Virginia, admitted in

1863 as a punishment to the Commonwealth of Virginia for its participation in the Civil War, and all the rest of the South except Georgia, Louisiana, Maryland and Delaware were Republican, being in the hands of governments for which negroes voted. Under these circumstances the success of General Grant, the Republican candidate, was certain, altho the total Democratic votes including the Democratic and Republican states were 2,700,000 for Seymour, Democratic candidate, against 3,000,000 for Grant.

Election of 1872. This abnormal condition of reconstructed states operating under Republican influences, continued until 1872. The Democrats carried only Maryland, Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri, Georgia and Texas, altho they put up the seasoned abolitionist Greeley as their candidate. Every state was now restored to a voting status, but the votes of two, Arkansas and Louisiana, were thrown out on grounds of fraud. Grant's re-election seemed to promise the Republicans a long course of unchecked power.

Election of 1876. In the period from 1872 to 1876, the new state of Colorado was admitted, thus making six states in the Far West and Pacific slope, all of them Republican. Three of the reconstructed southern states, South Carolina, Louisiana and Florida, went Republican. Every other former slave-holding state, including even West Virginia, became Democratic. This was substantially building up a southern party against a northern party. The electoral machine of Louisiana, Florida and South Carolina was in the hands of Republicans who decided that there was a small majority for the Republican ticket in their states. This brought on a crisis in Congress which was finally settled by an extra-constitutional commission. By uniform votes of eight to seven the commission decided that substantially all the contested state votes were Republican. Thus was declared a vote of 185 for Hayes and 184 for Tilden.

MAP A33.
PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1800–1892

The four maps in this series form the celebrated see-saw-Republican victory in 1880, Democratic in 1884; again Republican in 1888, and Democratic in 1892. In 1889 and 1890 the six states of Idaho, Wyoming, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota and Washington came in almost simultaneously. In those twelve years the map of the United States was considerably altered by the almost complete disappearance of the block of territories shown by the yellow color in 1884 and 1888. This is a fundamental change; for after Utah became a state in 1896 every part of the continental area of the Union was in statehood except Oklahoma, New Mexico and Arizona.

Sectional Relations. During the first three of these elections New England, the states north of Maryland and the Ohio River, and the new northwestern and middle western states were almost solidly Republican except for Connecticut, New York and New Jersey. In all the elections, if New York went Democratic the country went Democratic. In all the elections, without any exception, every southern state including Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, Kentucky and Missouri was Democratic. This is the celebrated Solid South, which remained almost unbrokenly Democratic from that time forward.

Election of 1880. The Republican candidate for 1880 was James A. Garfield of Ohio, who was opposed by General Hancock of New York, the last of a series of military candidates on one side or the other beginning with Grant in 1868. As frequently has happened, tho Garfield secured a plurality of sixty electoral votes, his popular plurality was only about 7,000 out of the 9,000,000 votes cast. That California and Nevada should be Democratic was a new idea in American politics, but they were never thereafter steadily Republican.

Election of 1884. The vote distribution in 1884 is very closely the same with the important difference that New York, which in 1880 gave 21,000 plurality for the Republicans, in 1884 showed about 1,000 plurality for Grover Cleveland, Governor of New York, the first Democrat to be chosen president since James Buchanan in 1856. He narrowly defeated his opponent, James G. Blaine of Maine, long in public office and a consumate politician. Cleveland owed his election to the formation of a body of voters, never organized as a party but commonly called Mugwumps, who in New York and Connecticut turned the scale for Cleveland.

Election of 1888. In the three elections from 1880 to 1888 a minority vote of 300,000 to 400,000 was cast for regular nominees of Greenback, Prohibition and Labor parties. Leaving those minor votes out of account, Harrison of Indiana, tho he decisively defeated Cleveland, was in a minority of 100,000 popular votes. Outside of the former border states, with North Carolina, the Republican minority in the south was too small to make possible a permanent and powerful organization.

Election of 1892. In 1892 came a reaction which showed itself in the choice of Cleveland for a second term, the only instance in the history of the United States where a man has been elected to two terms, separated by another President. The votes were somewhat affected by a long continued struggle in Congress over the Lodge Force Bill, a proposition that the federal government conduct the elections for federal officials, including the President, hoping thus to develop a controlling Republican vote in some of the southern states. Along with this controversy was the tremendous agitation over free silver, that is; practically, the right to deposit silver bullion in the United States mint and to receive for it gold or silver coin at the ratio of sixteen to one between the metals. The silver miners were greatly interested in this question, and the admission of the six far western states was tied up with the abandonment of the Force Bill described above. The most serious disturbance in that year was the rise of a minority party calling itself the Populist, which stood not only for free silver but for other measures urged in behalf of the laboring and farming classes.

MAP A34.
PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1896–1908

In the next four elections, as shown on this map, we see a series of struggles between North and South. The North was absolutely solid so far as New England, the middle states and the middle west were concerned. On the other hand the South remained absolutely solid with the exception of the border states. The far western states were nearly all Democratic in 1896, were divided in 1900, and in 1908 became solidly Republican.

Election of 1896. William McKinley of Ohio, Republican, was easily elected over William J. Bryan of Nebraska, who was nominated by the Democratic Convention after an impassioned speech on the free silver question, including the famous declaration, "Thou shalt not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold." This election drew a large Republican vote in Virginia, North Carolina and Tennessee, but the Solid South's electoral vote was unshaken. Measured by area of states, Bryan was the favorite candidate; but his states in the northwest had small population and hence few votes, while the smaller areas of New England, New York, Pennsylvania and the lake states rolled up great Republican majorities. McKinley received about 600,000 more popular votes than Bryan.

Election of 1900. The politics of the country were much affected by the Spanish War of 1898, with its resulting occupation of the Philippines. In 1900 President McKinley was a candidate for a second term and Bryan was again nominated against him. The subdivision of the states between the two major parties is altered from 1896, inasmuch as Wyoming, Washington, Utah, South Dakota, Nebraska and Kansas went over from the Democratic to the Republican columns. Kentucky shifted from Republican to Democratic. The Republican majority was 850,000 over the Democrats, presaging a long hold of Republican power. The assassination of McKinley in the fall of 1901 brought Theodore Roosevelt into the presidential chair and thereby made the four years' administration practically his.

Election of 1904. This was a very popular administration and Roosevelt was nominated without opposition by the Republicans. Alton B. Parker of New York was the Democratic candidate and was successful in rallying the party convention on the side of gold standard for currency. For the first time in many years the Republicans got more than two-thirds of the electoral votes; Roosevelt's plurality over the Democrats was over 2,500,000, and his majority over all was over 1,500,000. For the first time the Republican party lined up every northern state, every far western state and every Pacific state. Outside the "Solid South," including the border states, the Democratic vote was insignificant. No president since Grant, in 1872, secured such a triumphant majority as Roosevelt.

Election of 1908. As was proved later, Roosevelt could probably have been renominated for a third term, or for a second elective term. He considered himself pledged against that course and practically selected the Secretary of War, William H. Taft of Ohio, as his successor. Bryan was for the third time the Democratic candidate and for the third time was defeated. One new state, Oklahoma, appeared on the voting list. The electoral vote was substantially the same as in 1904, except that the Republicans lost Nevada, Colorado and Nebraska by a close vote. The "Solid South" was still absolutely solid except for West Virginia and two Republican votes in Maryland. Taft's popular plurality was nearly 1,300,000; but an aggregate of minor parties cast 800,000 votes. This includes Prohibition and Socialist-Labor candidates.

MAP A35.
PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1912–1924

This map brings out several hotly contested elections, including a new third party, and after 1912 involving great national issues of peace and war. From a glance at the map of 1912 it might be inferred that there was a tremendous and unprecedented Democratic victory, carrying all except two Republican and six "Progressive" states. Compared with the next map, and especially the maps of 1920 and 1924, it is evident that in reality the Republican party when united was still stronger than the Democratic. The reason for this anomaly

WORLD OF COLUMBUS
1492

Sea Routes of Venice .....

Sea Routes of Genoa .....

General Sea Routes .....

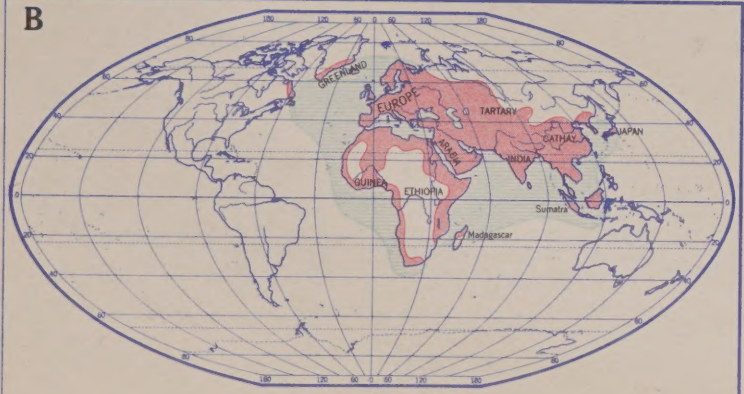
Land Routes .....

Caravan Routes .....

Prevailing Winds .....

The World according to Behaim's Globe in black outline.

B



THE WORLD 1492

The World as known to Europeans in 1492 *(before October)*

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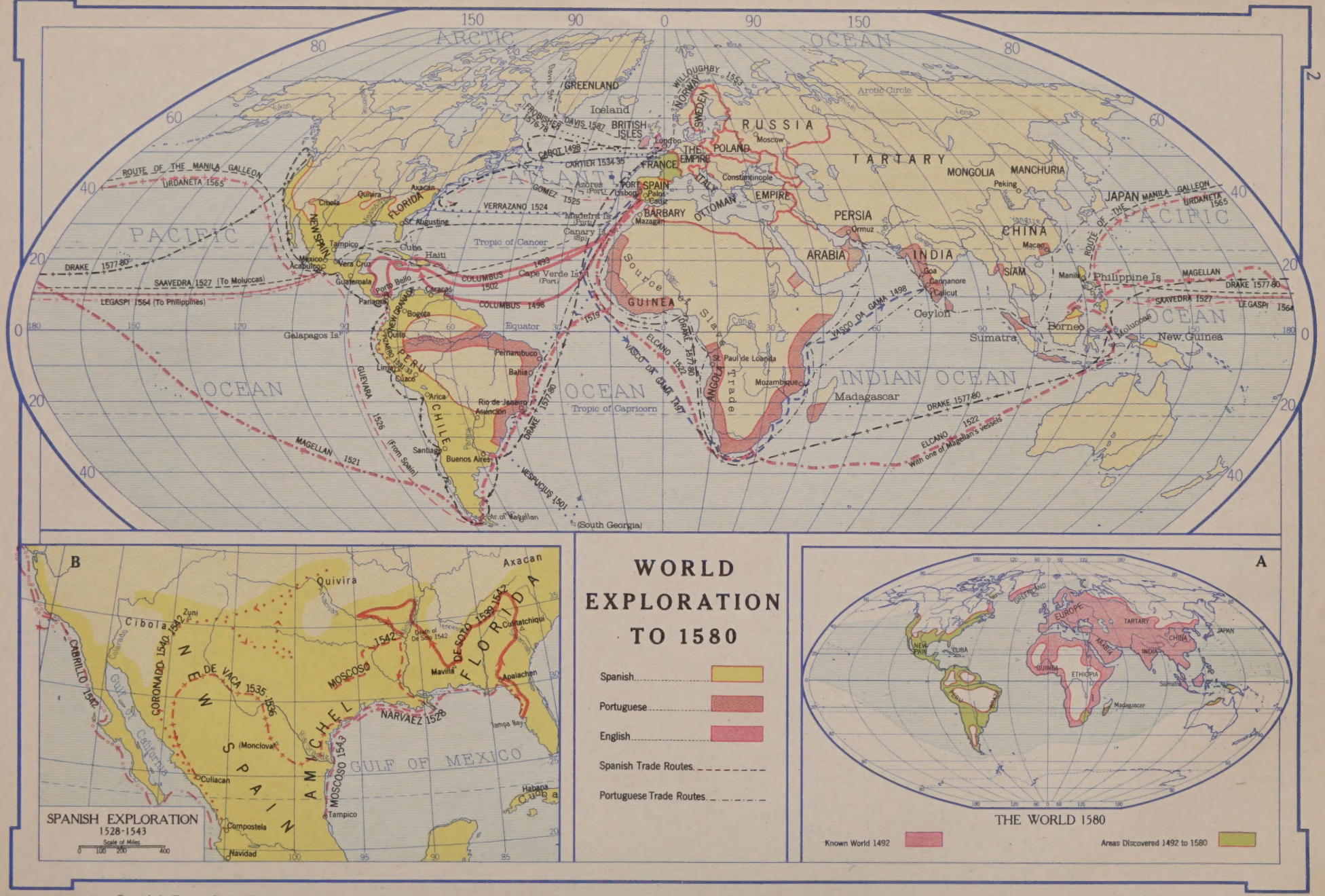

WORLD EXPLORATION TO 1580

Spanish

Portuguese

English

Spanish Trade Routes

Portuguese Trade Routes

THE WORLD 1580

Known World 1492

Areas Discovered 1492 to 1580

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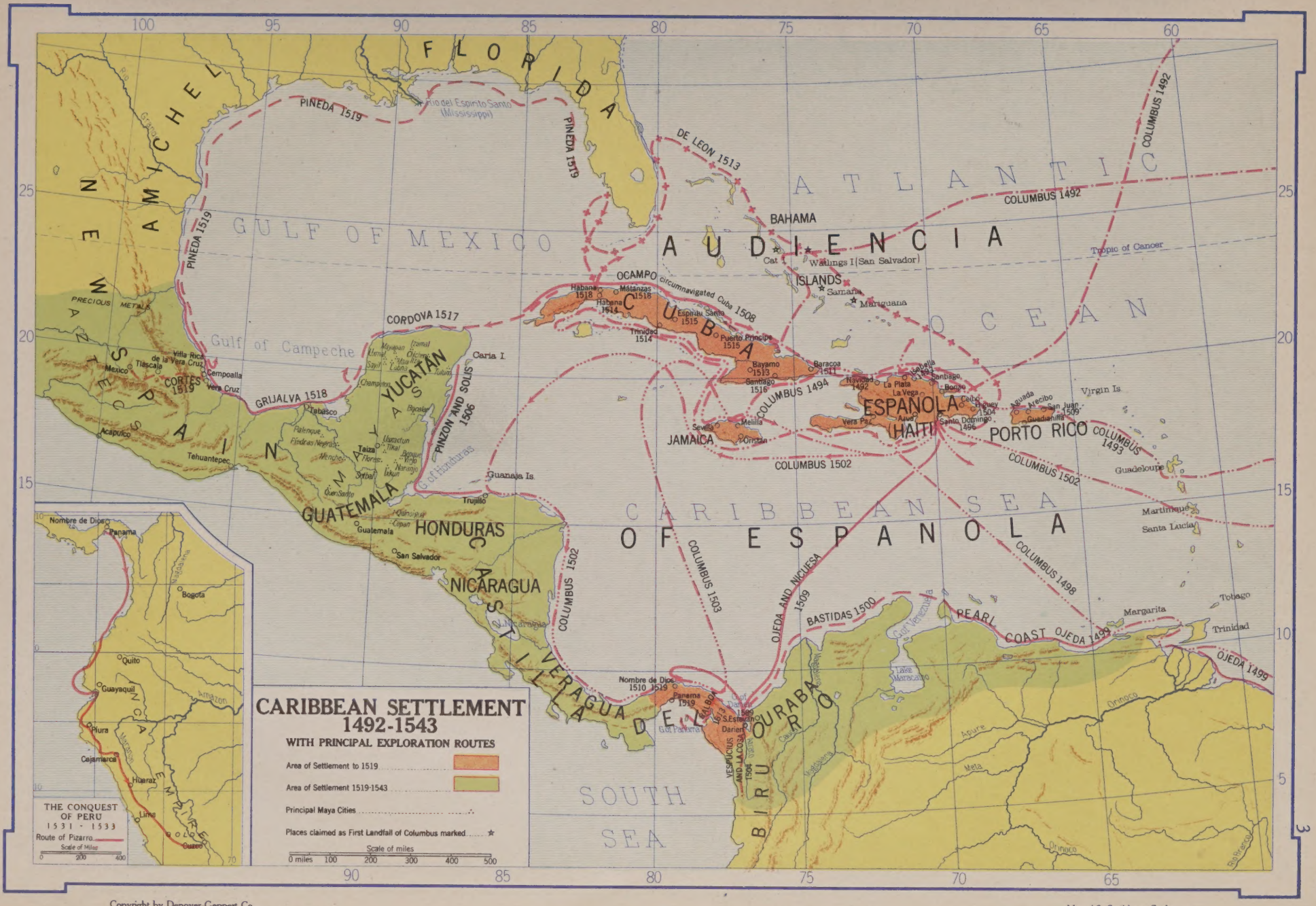

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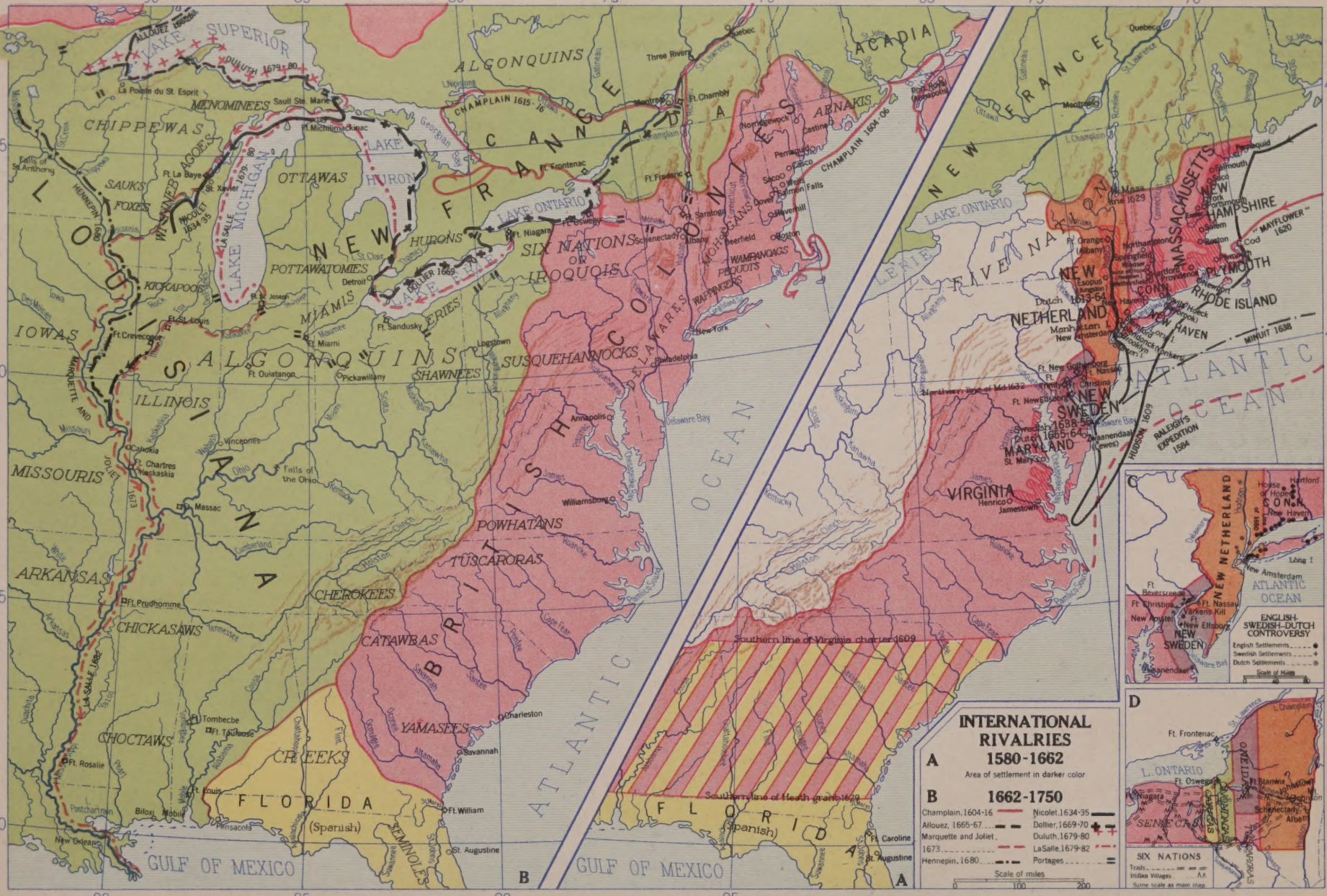
Map A3 Caribbean Settlement



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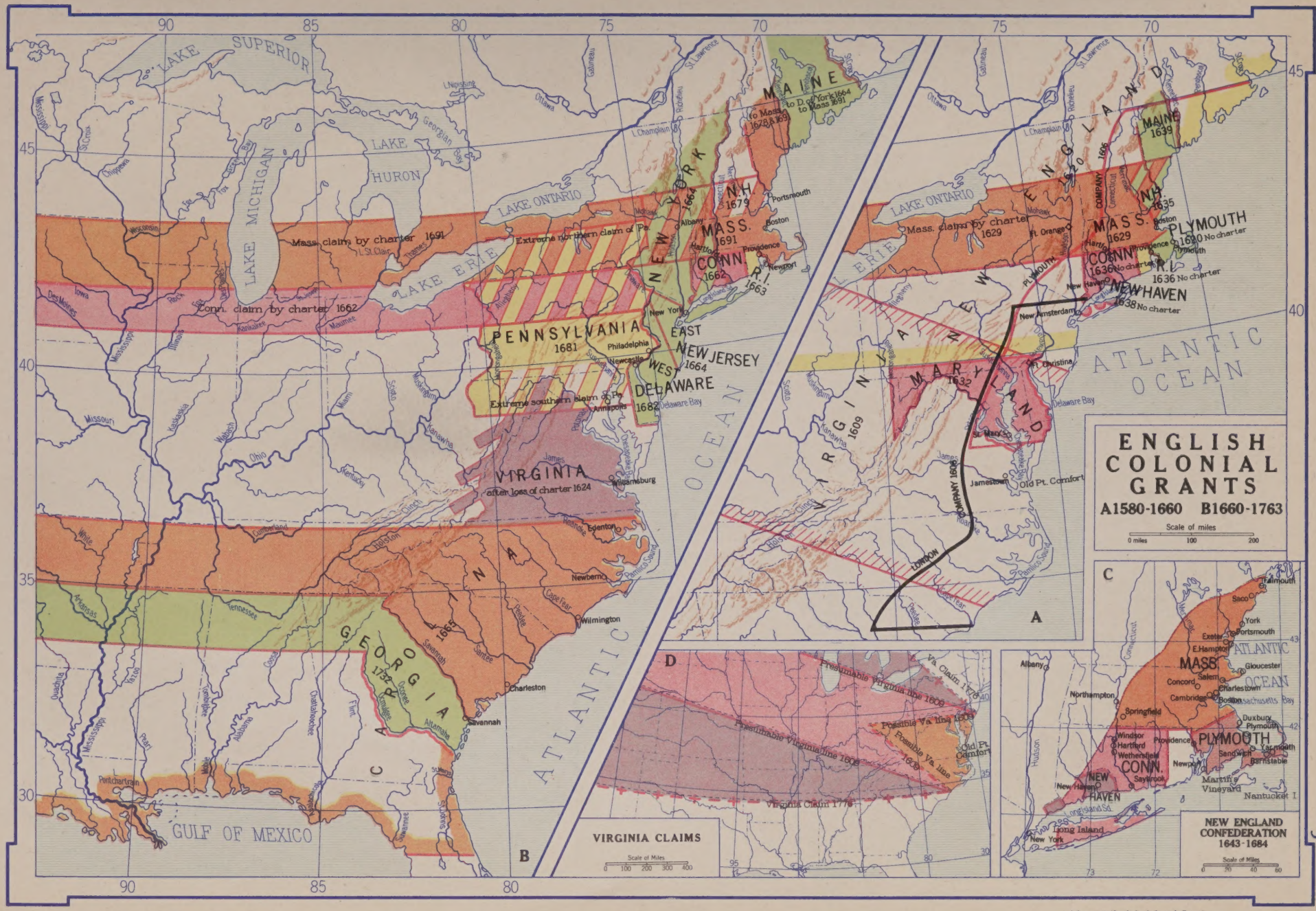

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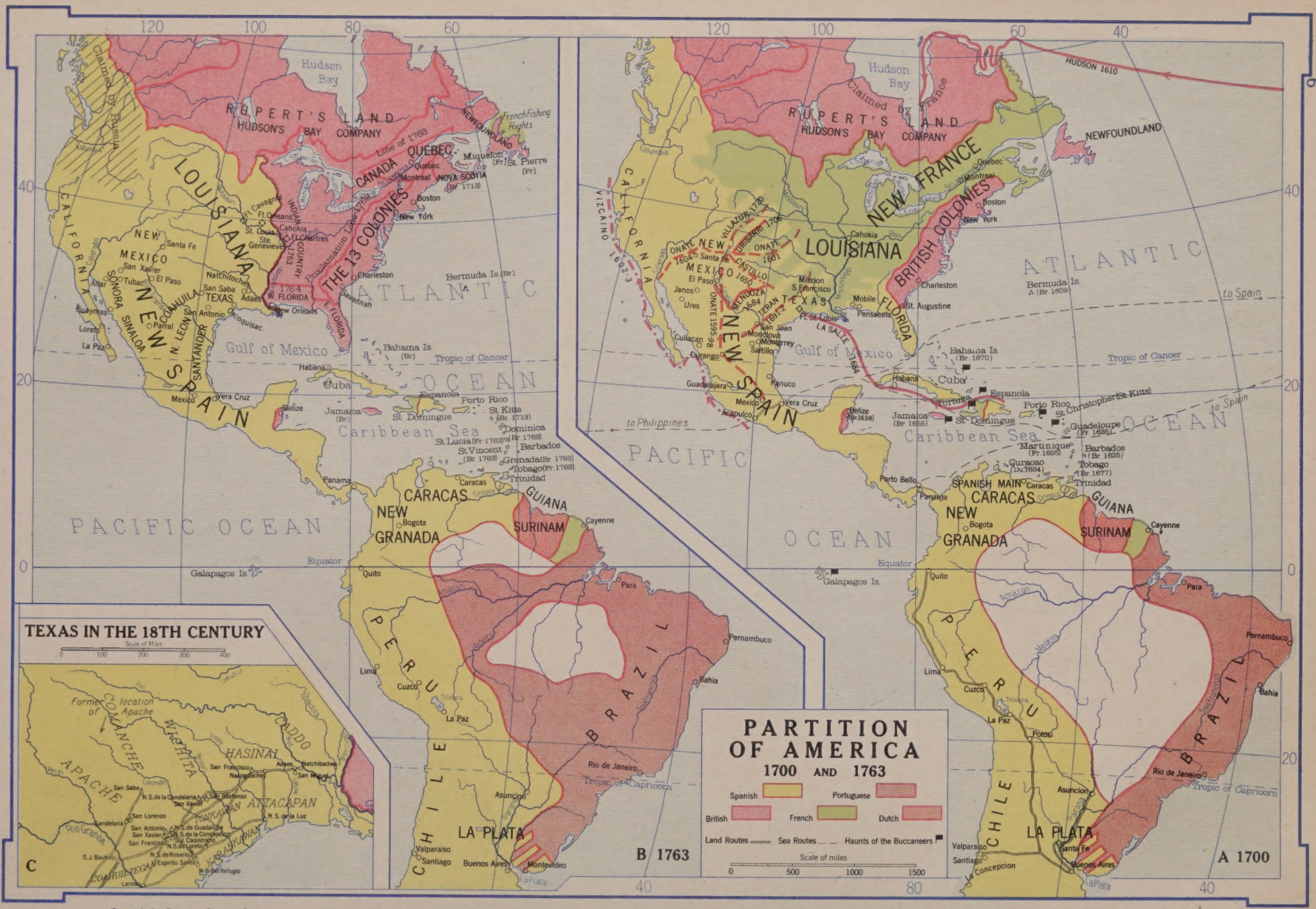

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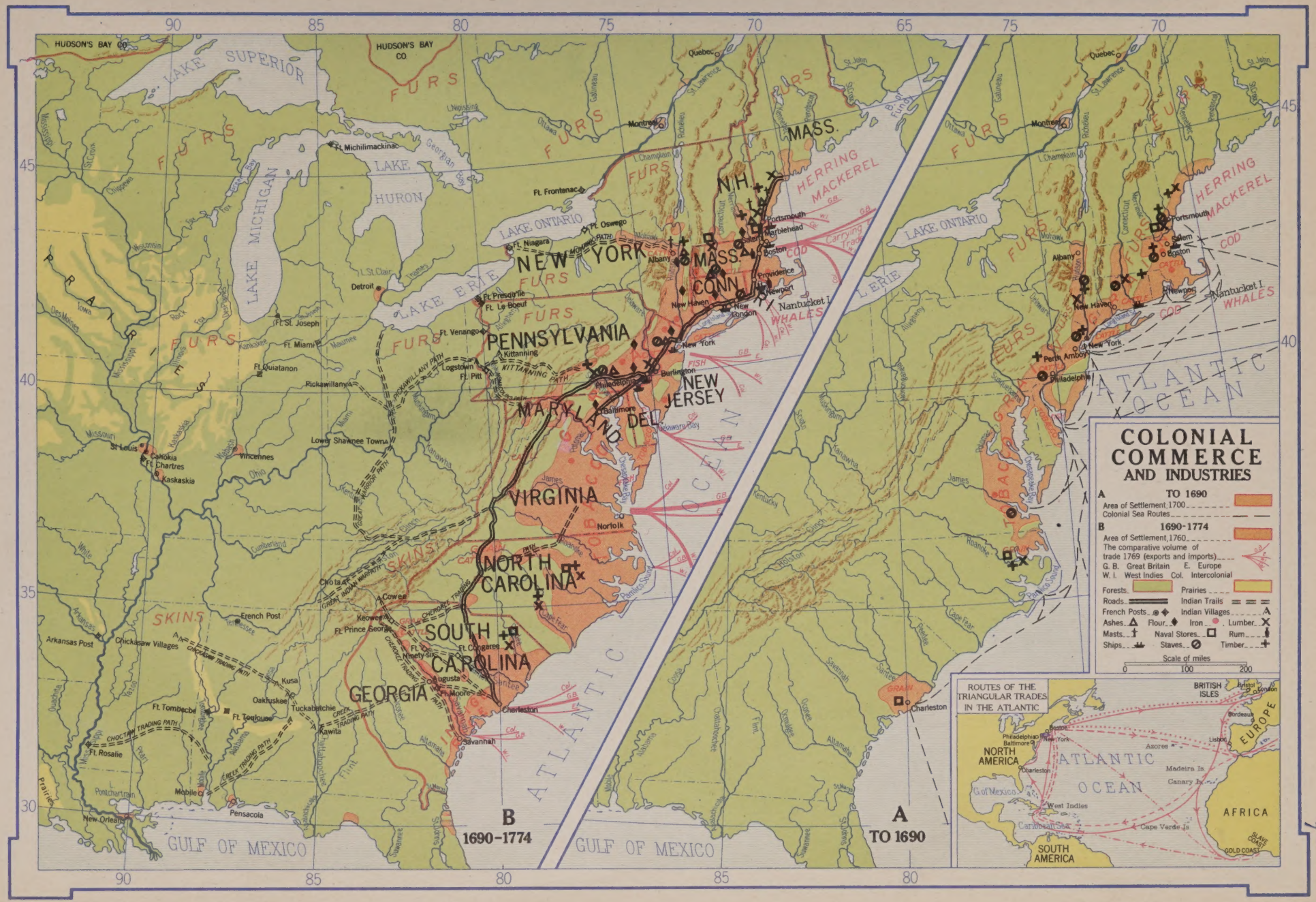
Map A6 Partition of America



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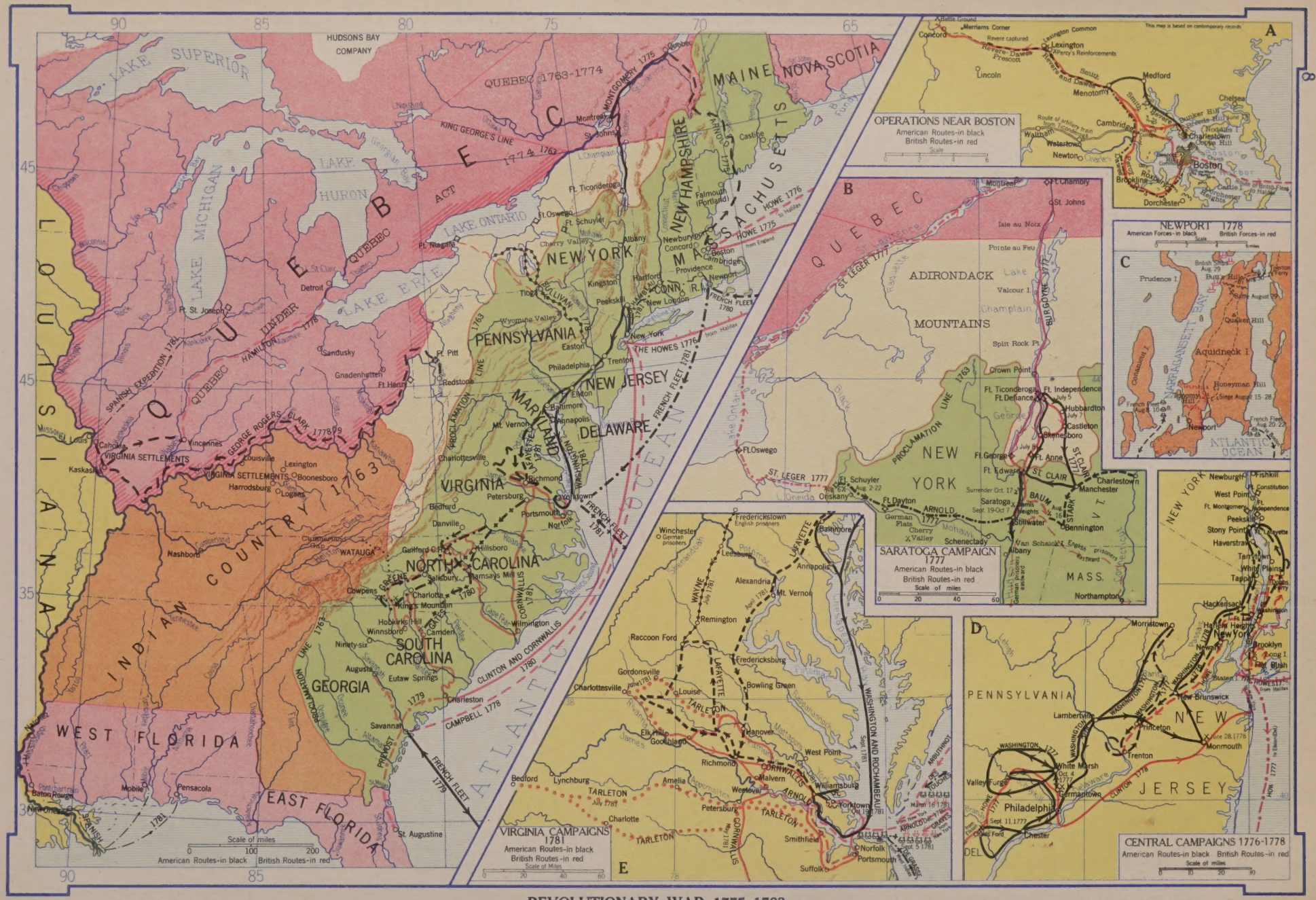

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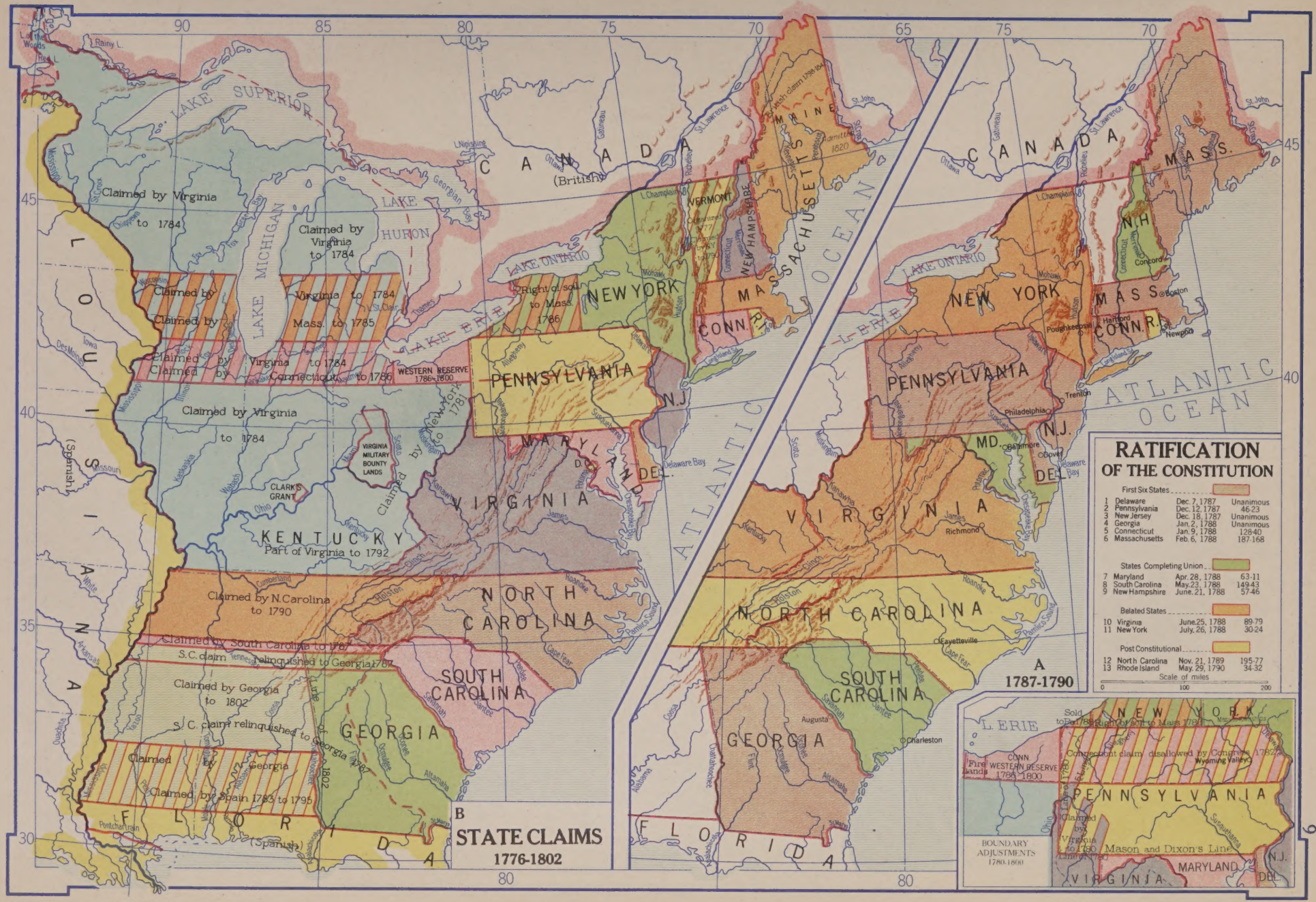

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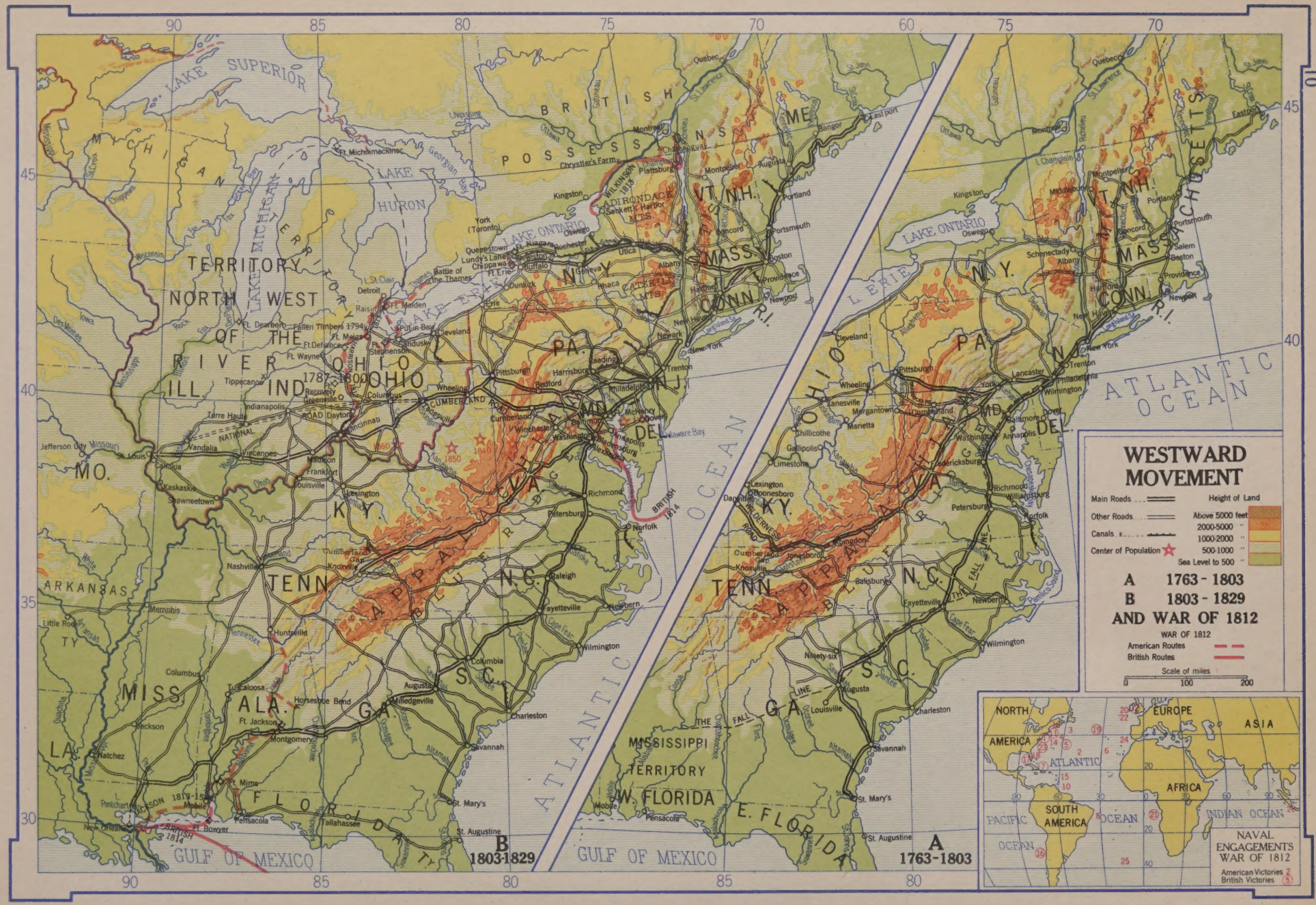

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Map A10 Westward Movement

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Map A12 Territorial Acquisitions

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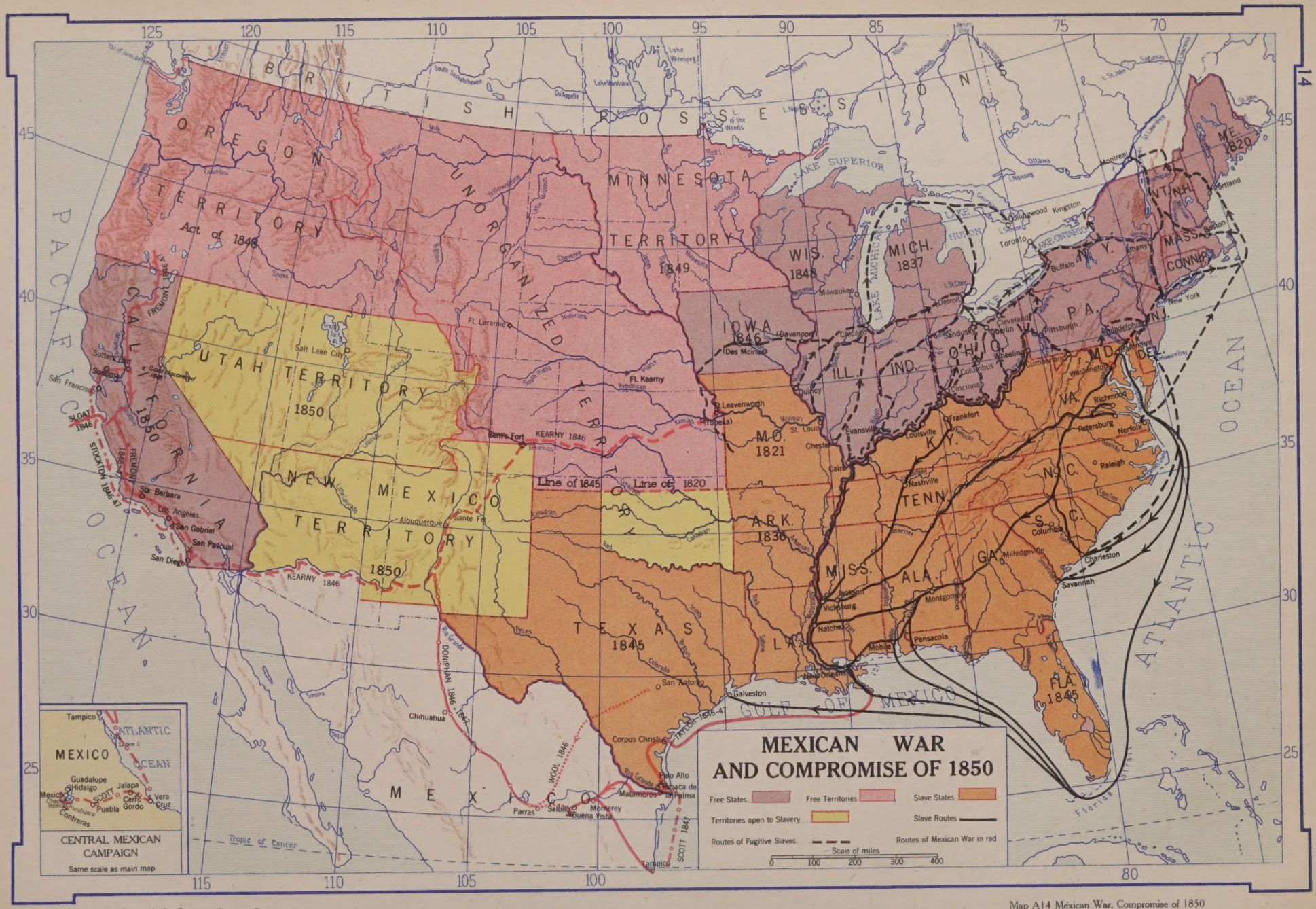
Map A13 Land and Water Routes


MEXICAN WAR AND COMPROMISE OF 1850
Free States
Free Territories
Slave States
Territories open to Slavery
Slave Routes
Routes of Fugitive Slaves
Routes of Mexican War in red
Scale of miles
0 100 200 300 400
CENTRAL MEXICAN CAMPAIGN
Same scale as main map
BRITISH POSSESSIONS
OREGON TERRITORY
Act of 1848
UNORGANIZED TERRITORY
1849
MINNESOTA
WIS. 1848
MICH. 1837
ME. 1820
VT. N.H.
MASS.
CONN.
R.I.
N.Y.
PA.
N.J.
DEL.
MD.
VA.
N.C.
S.C.
GA.
FLA. 1845
ALA.
MISS.
LA.
TEXAS 1845
ARK. 1836
MO. 1821
IOWA 1846
ILL.
IND.
OHIO
KY.
TENN.
UTAH TERRITORY 1850
NEW MEXICO TERRITORY 1850
CALIFORNIA 1850
Line of 1845
Line of 1820
KEARNY 1846
FREMONT 1845-47
STOCKTON 1846-47
DONIPHAN 1846-47
WOOL 1846
TAYLOR 1846-47
SCOTT 1847
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
MEXICO
Tropic of Cancer
Florida Straits
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Ontario
Lake Erie
Lake Winnipeg
Lake Manitoba
Hudson Bay
Gulf of St. Lawrence
Sutters Fort
San Francisco
Sonoma
Salt Lake City
Ft. Laramie
Ft. Kearny
Bents Fort
Leavenworth
Tropeka
St. Louis
Quincy
Chicago
Detroit
Milwaukee
Cincinnati
Columbus
Pittsburgh
Buffalo
Toronto
Montreal
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
Washington
Richmond
Norfolk
Petersburg
Raleigh
Charleston
Savannah
Columbia
Milledgeville
Montgomery
Mobile
Pensacola
New Orleans
Natchez
Vicksburg
Jackson
Nashville
Louisville
Frankfort
Evansville
Cairo
Albuquerque
Santa Fe
Los Angeles
Sta. Barbara
San Gabriel
San Pascual
San Diego
Chihuahua
San Antonio
Galveston
Corpus Christi
Rio Grande
Palo Alto
Resaca de la Palma
Matamoros
Parras
Saltillo
Monterey
Buena Vista
Tampico
Vera Cruz
Cerro Gordo
Puebla
Jalapa
Contreras
Guadalupe Hidalgo
Mexico
Toluca
Cuernavaca
Cuautla
Acapulco
Sonora
Coahuila
Chihuahua
Durango
Zacatecas
Tamaulipas
Nuevo Leon
Coahuila
Texas
Rio Grande
Pecos
Colorado
Brazos
Trinity
Red
Canadian
Arkansas
Missouri
Mississippi
Ohio
Tennessee
Cumberland
Yellowstone
Missouri
Platte
Arkansas
Cheyenne
Laramie
Nebraska
Kansas
Republican
Smoky Hill
Osage
Des Moines
Davenport
Milwaukee
Fox
Wisconsin
Illinois
Rock
Kaskaskia
Wabash
Ohio
Kanawha
Monongahela
Allegheny
Susquehanna
Delaware
Potomac
Rappahannock
James
Roanoke
Yadkin
Pee Dee
Santee
Savannah
Chattahoochee
Flint
Apalachicola
Alabama
Tombigbee
Pearl
Red
Ouachita
Arkansas
Canadian
Colorado
Brazos
Trinity
Neches
Sabine
Rio Grande
Pecos
Gila
Colorado
Snake
Columbia
Fraser
Mackenzie
Athabasca
Saskatchewan
Assiniboine
Red
Milk

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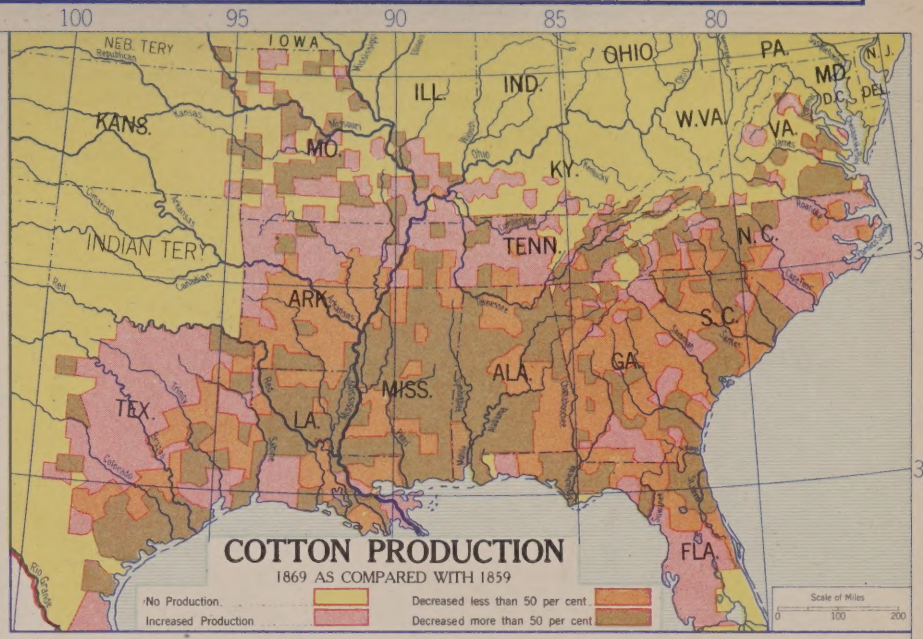
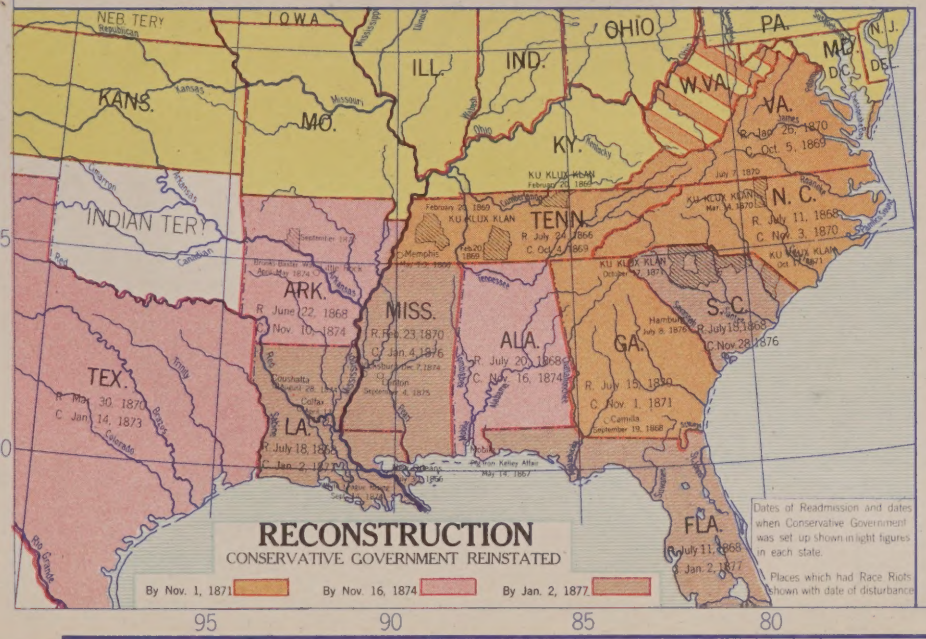
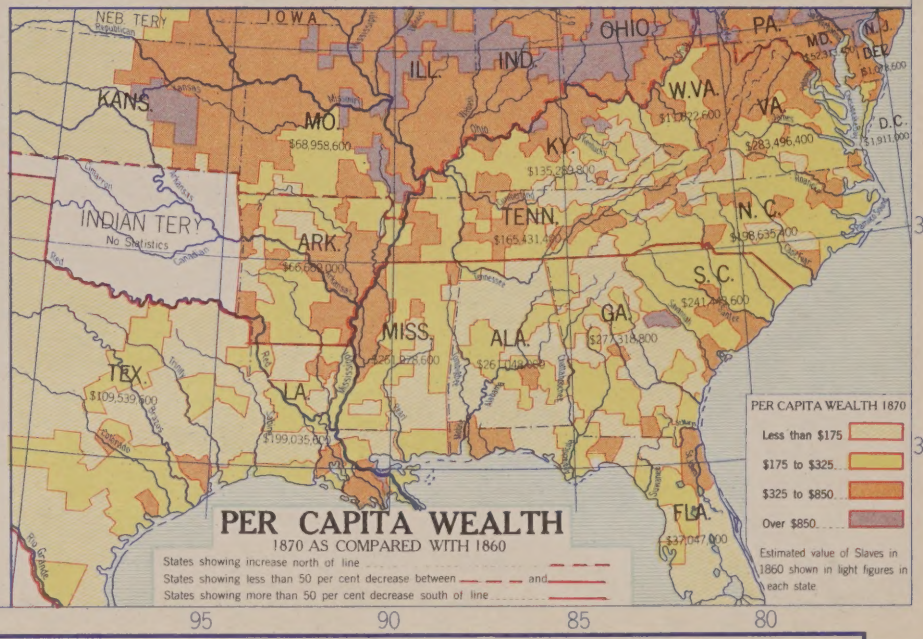
Map A16 Civil War, 1861-1865

ABOLITION
Free States at Outbreak of Civil War.
By Territorial Act of Congress 1862.
By Admission as State (gradual) June 19,1863
By State Action
By 13th Amendment only Dec. 18,1865
By Emancipation Proclamation 1863
Dates of Abolition by State Action
Number of Slaves freed (Census of 1860)
Both shown in light figures in each state.




RECONSTRUCTION
CONSERVATIVE GOVERNMENT REINSTATED
By Nov. 1, 1871
By Nov. 16, 1874
By Jan. 2, 1877
Dates of Readmission and dates when Conservative Government was set up shown in light figures in each state.
Places which had Race Riots shown with date of disturbance


PER CAPITA WEALTH
1870 AS COMPARED WITH 1860
States showing increase north of line
States showing less than 50 per cent decrease between and
States showing more than 50 per cent decrease south of line
PER CAPITA WEALTH 1870
Less than $175
$175 to $325
$325 to $850
Over $850
Estimated value of Slaves in 1860 shown in light figures in each state

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Map A18 Western Statehood and Land Grants

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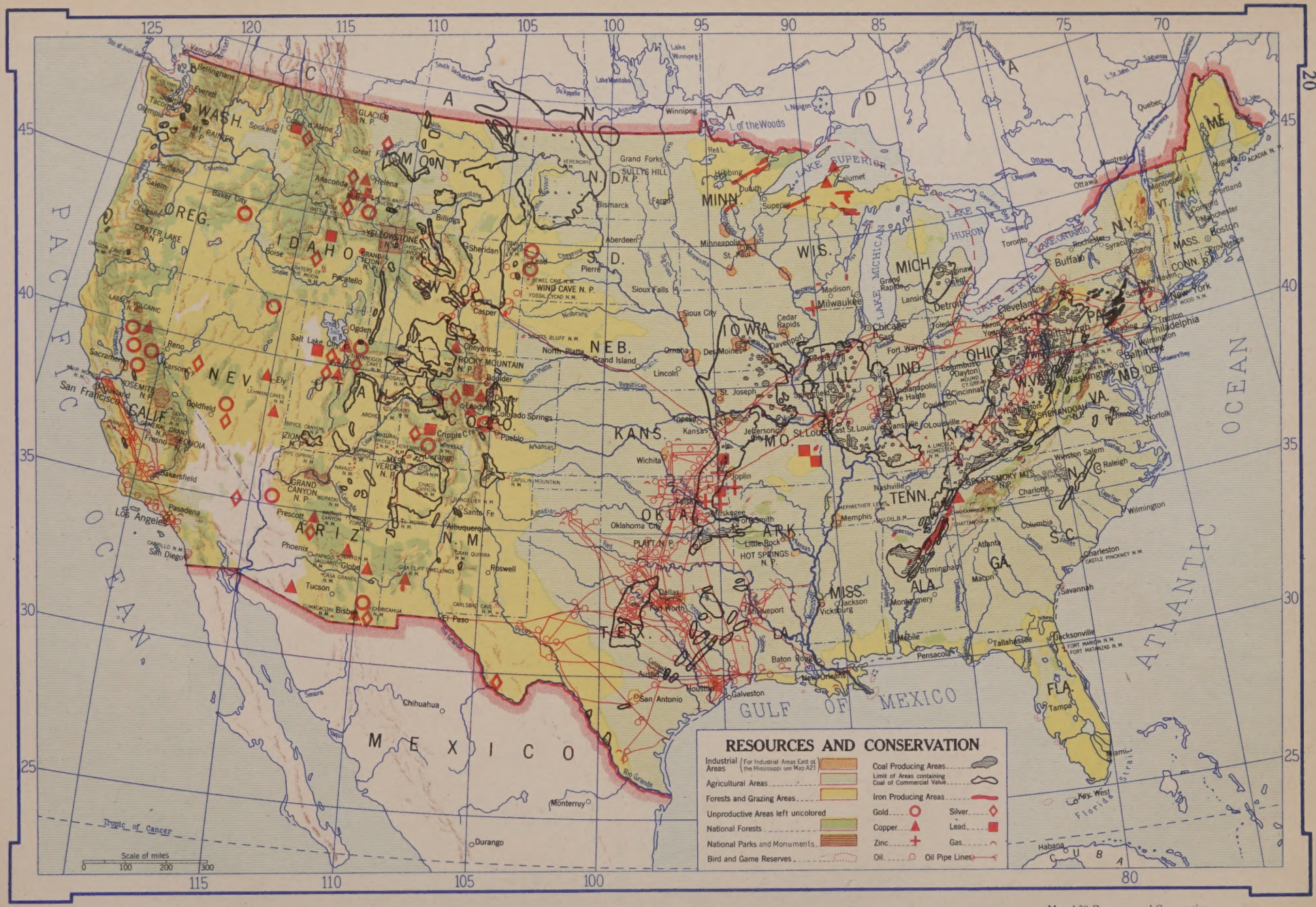
Map A19 Lines of Transportation, 1930



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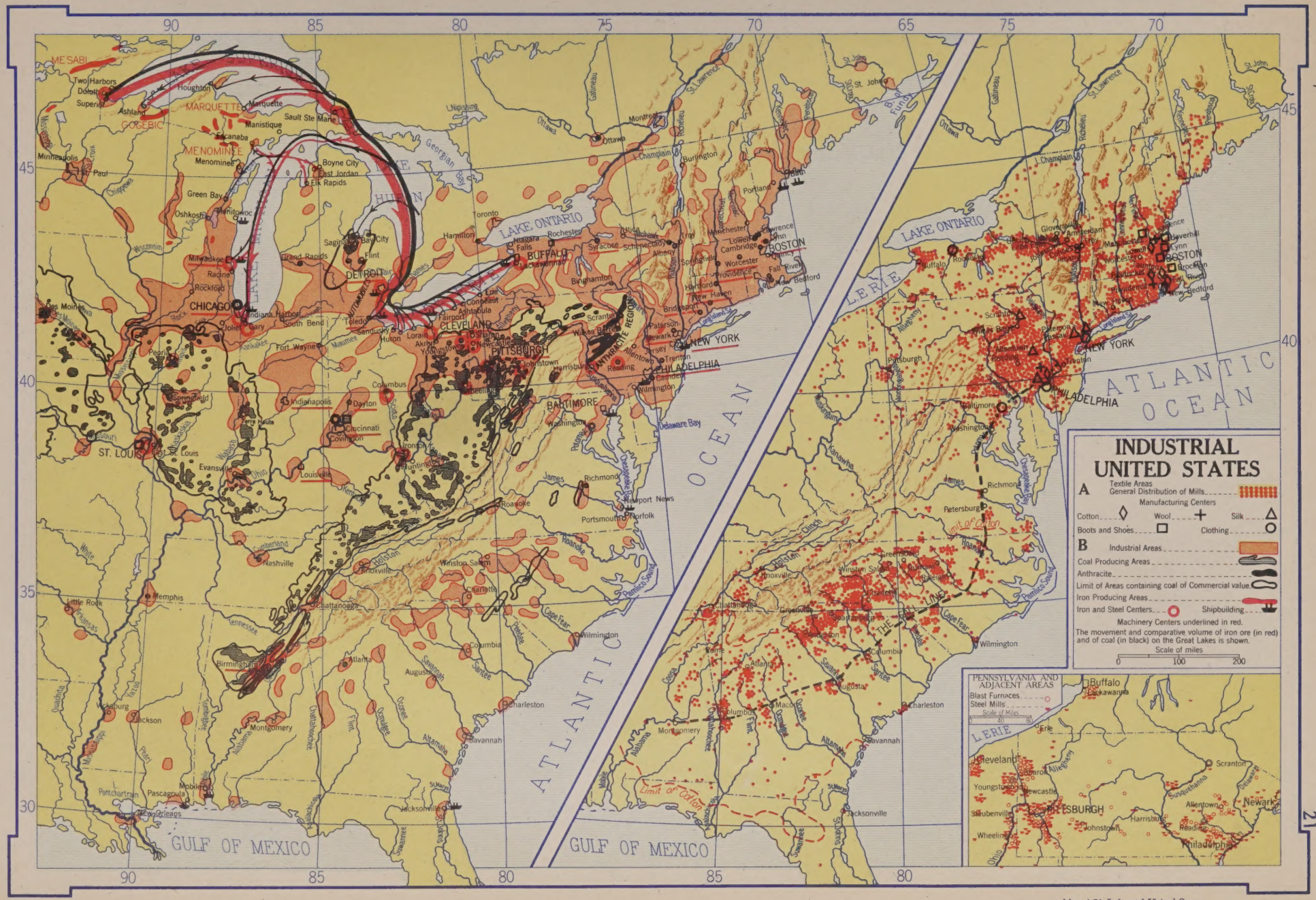
Map A20 Resources and Conservation



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Map A21 Industrial United States

AGRICULTURAL
UNITED STATES
Wheat
Corn
Cotton
Dairy Cattle
Meat Cattle
Land Grant
State Agricultural Colleges
Slaughtering Centers
Irrigation Projects
Milling Centers
Scale of miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
Tropic of Cancer
Seattle
Portland
San Francisco
Los Angeles
Salt Lake City
Denver
Omaha
Chicago
Minneapolis
St. Paul
Kansas City
St. Louis
Dallas
Houston
San Antonio
Galveston
New Orleans
Atlanta
Washington
New York
Boston
Philadelphia
Pittsburgh
Cleveland
Detroit
Milwaukee
Buffalo
Richmond
Norfolk
Charleston
Savannah
Jacksonville
Tallahassee
Mobile
Memphis
Nashville
Louisville
Cincinnati
Indianapolis
Columbus
Lansing
Madison
Des Moines
Omaha
Lincoln
Wichita
Oklahoma City
Fort Worth
Waco
Shreveport
Little Rock
Birmingham
Montgomery
Jackson
Baton Rouge
Lake Superior
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake Ontario
Lake Winnipeg
Hudson Bay
Gulf of St. Lawrence
Florida Strait
Sponges
Oysters
Herring
Cod
Halibut
Mackerel
Lobster
Clams
Scallops
Whitefish
Trout
Perch
Pike
Pickerel
Bass
Catfish
Sturgeon
Shad
Salmon
Mackerel
Herring
Cod
Halibut
Lobster
Oysters
Clams
Scallops

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Map A23 United States in the Caribbean

GREATER UNITED STATES

Territory of United States

Areas of Special Interest to United States

Sea Routes with distances in Statute Miles

The comparative volume of Shipping Traffic is shown by width of lines

Principal Railroads — Gold in Alaska ○ Coal in Alaska

CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES 2,973,774 SQ. MILES

PHILLIPINE ISLANDS 14,400 Sq. Miles

CANAL ZONE 549 Sq. Miles

ALASKA 586,400 Sq. Miles

PORTO RICO 3,435 Sq. Miles

HAWAII 6,406 Sq. Miles

COMPARATIVE AREA OF U.S. AND POSSESSIONS

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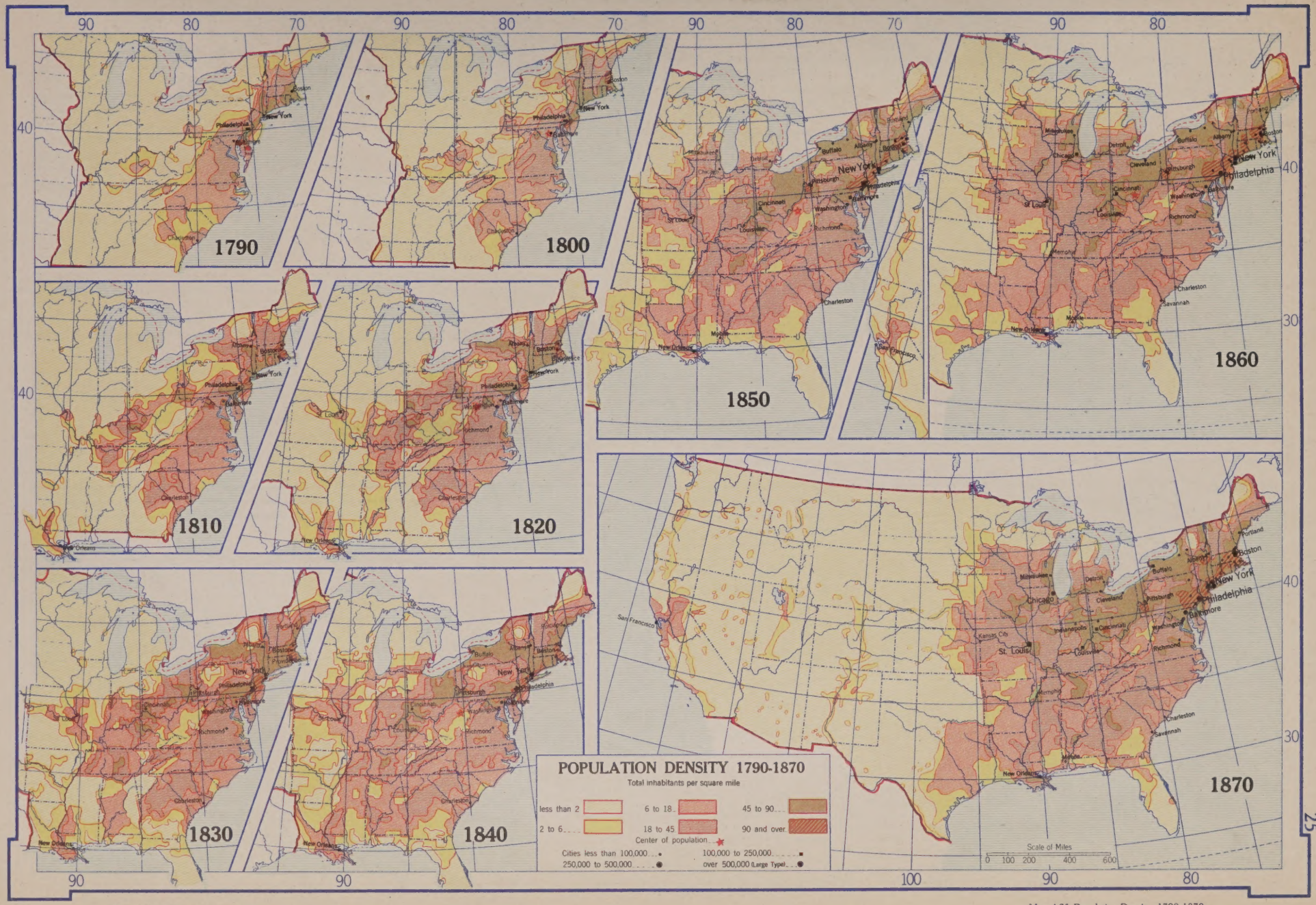

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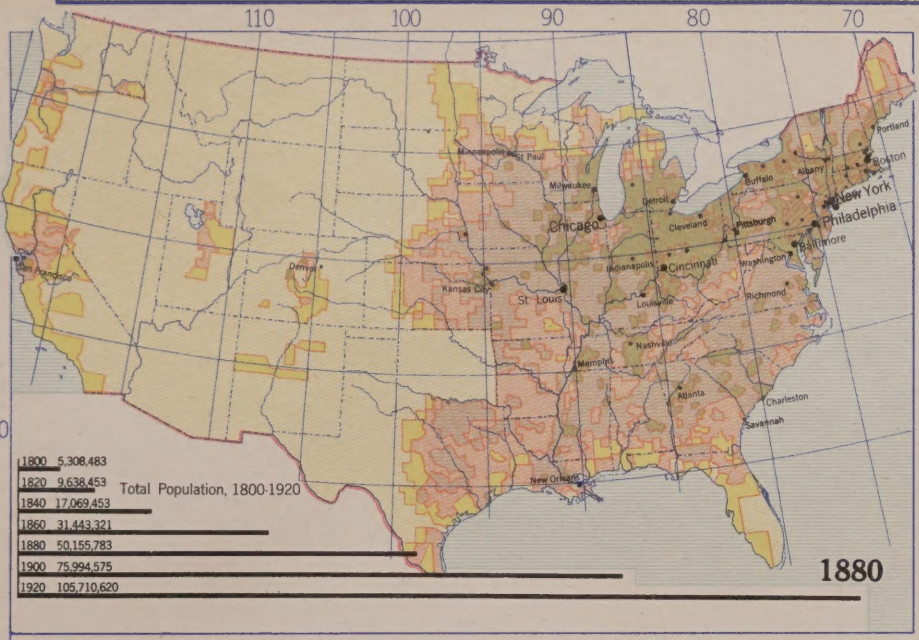
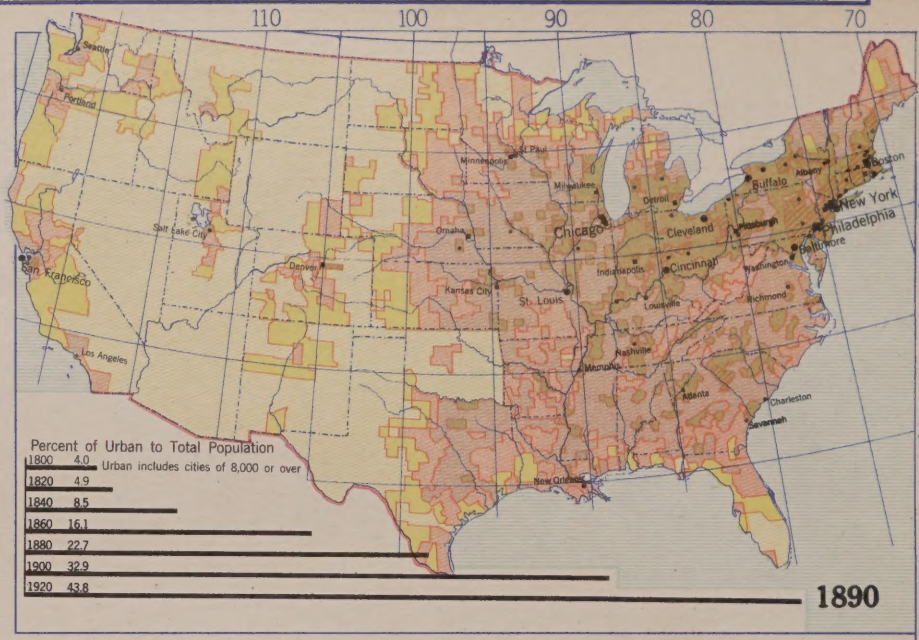
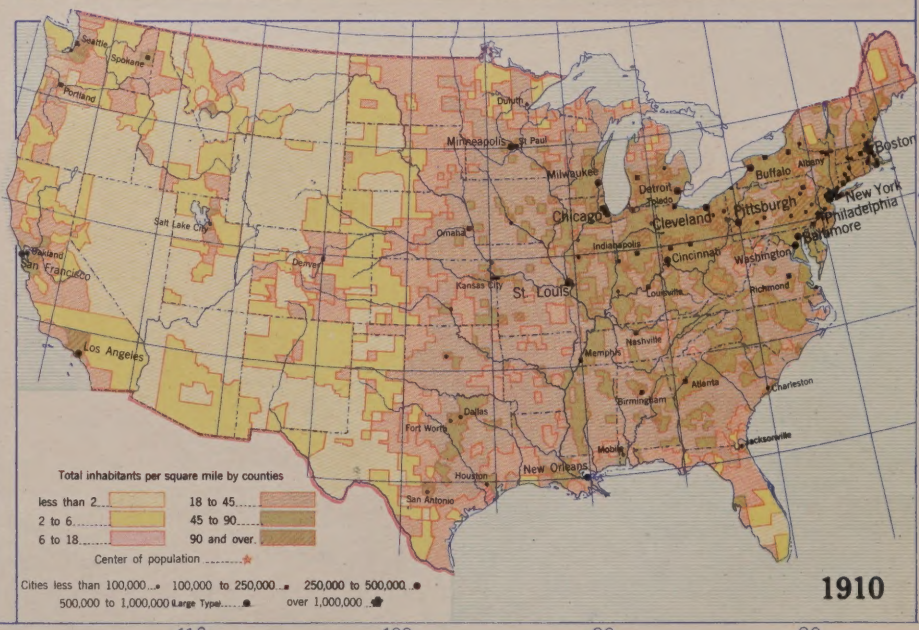
Map A25 Population Density, 1790-1870







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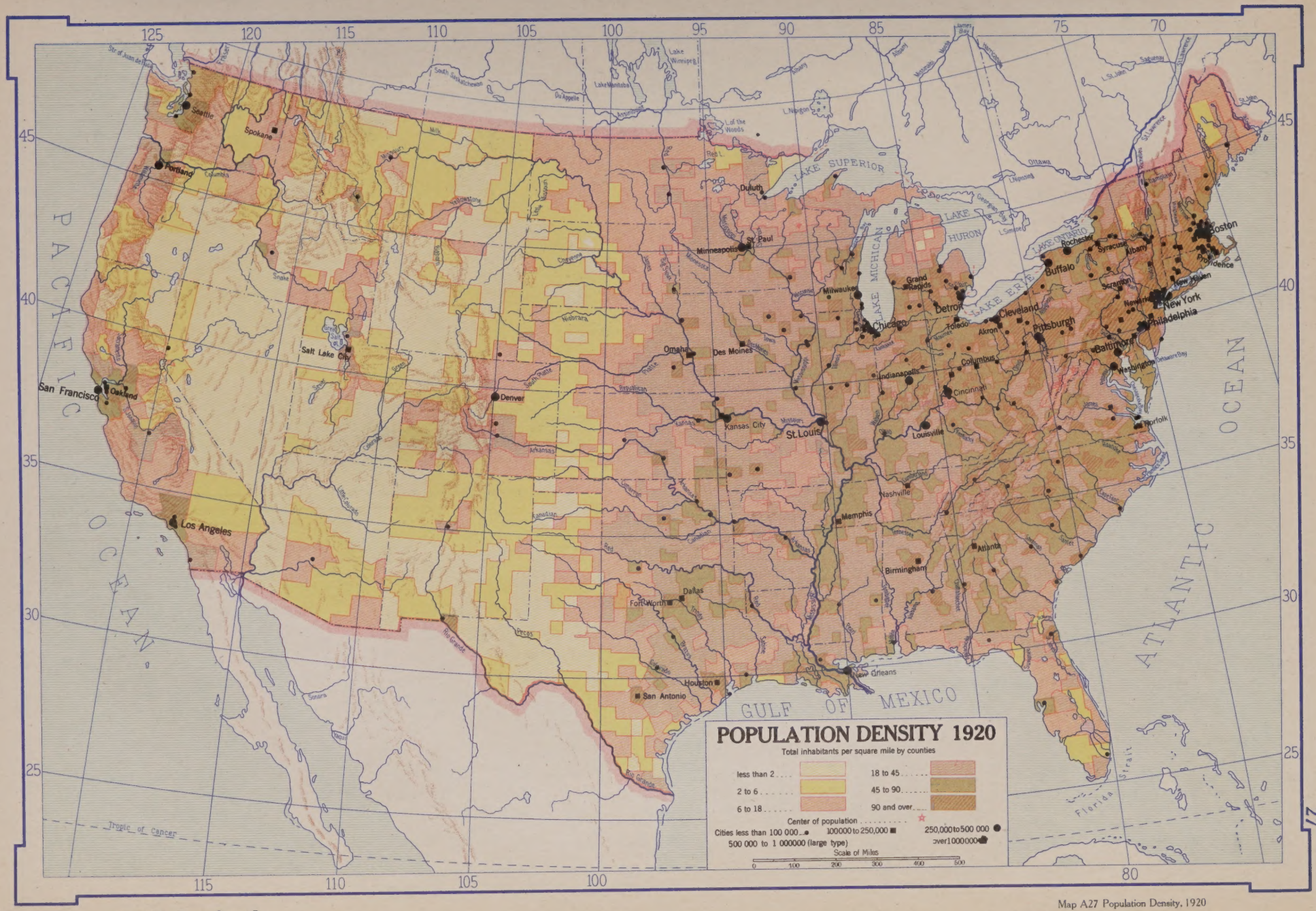
POPULATION DENSITY, 1880-1910

Map A26 Population Density, 1880-1910



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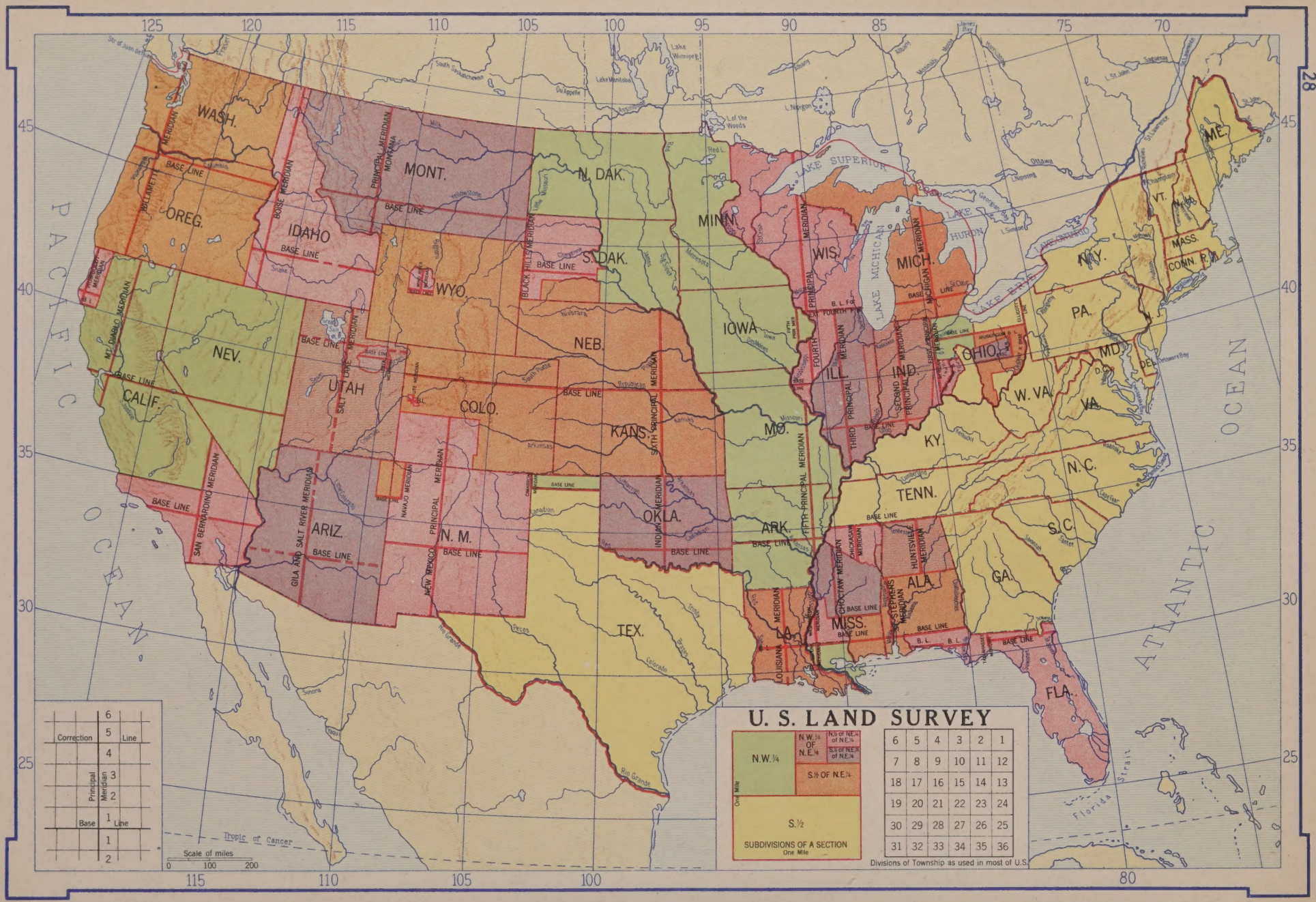
Map A27 Population Density, 1920



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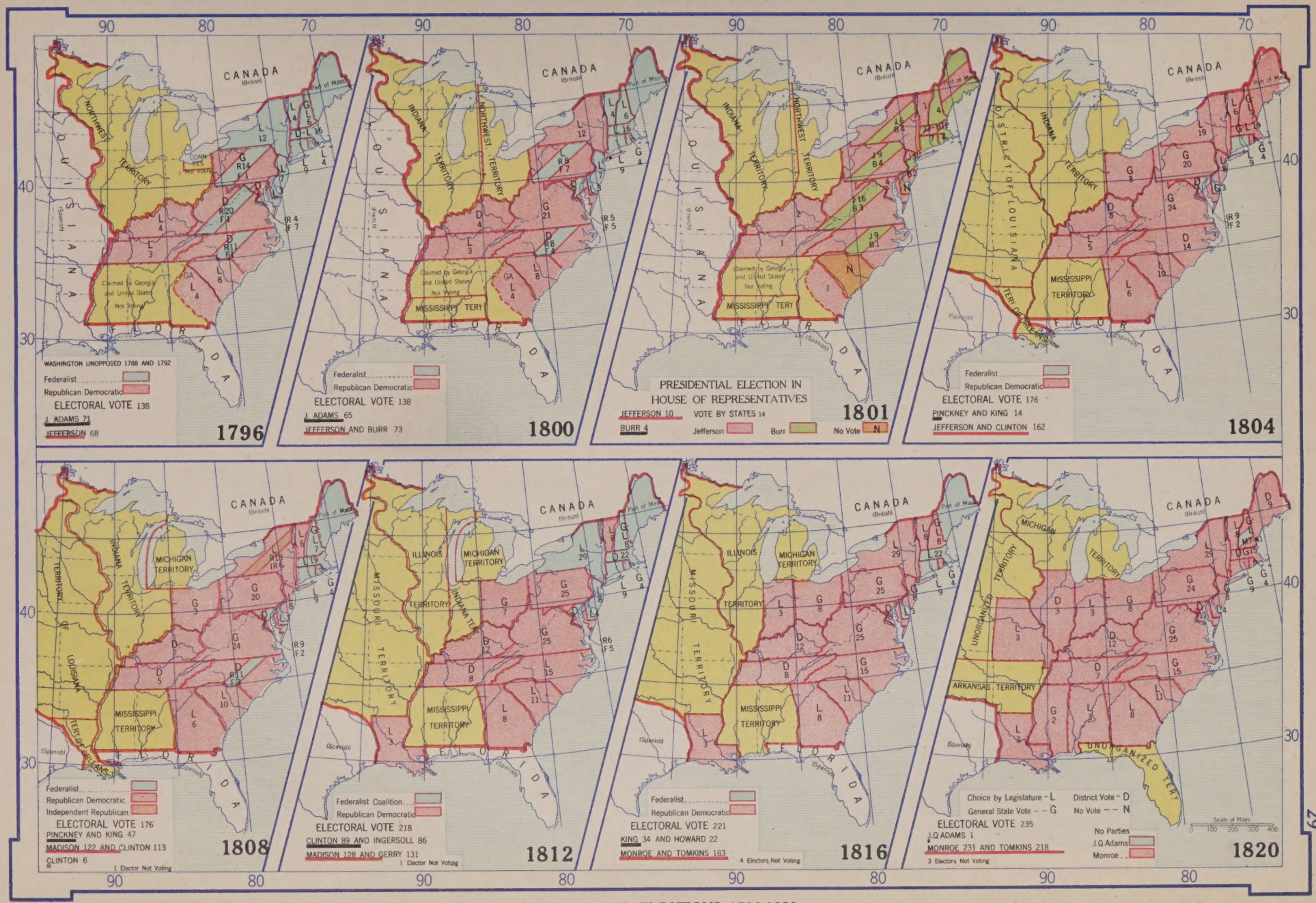
Map A28 United States Land Survey



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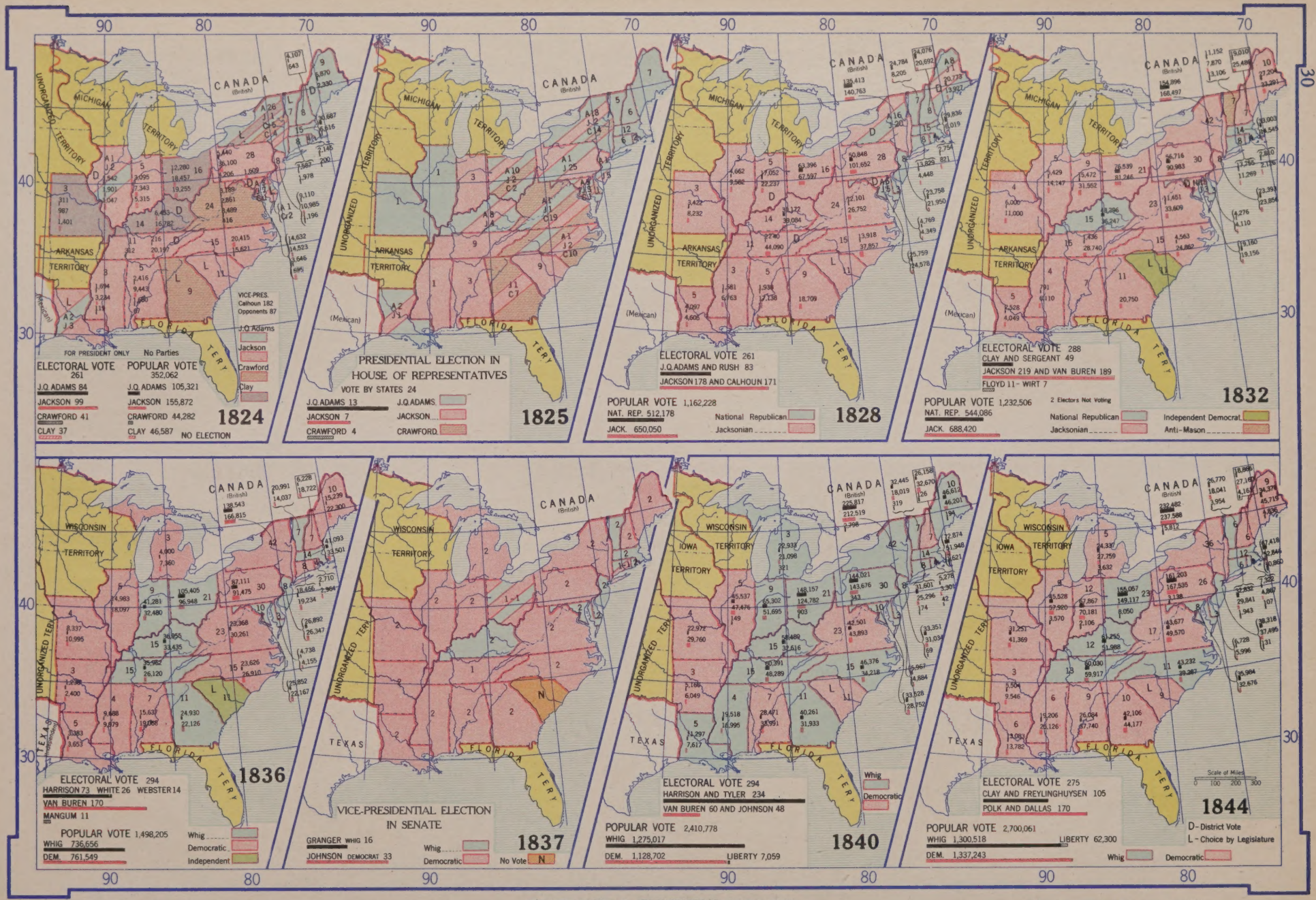
PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS, 1796-1820

Map A29 Presidential Elections, 1796-20



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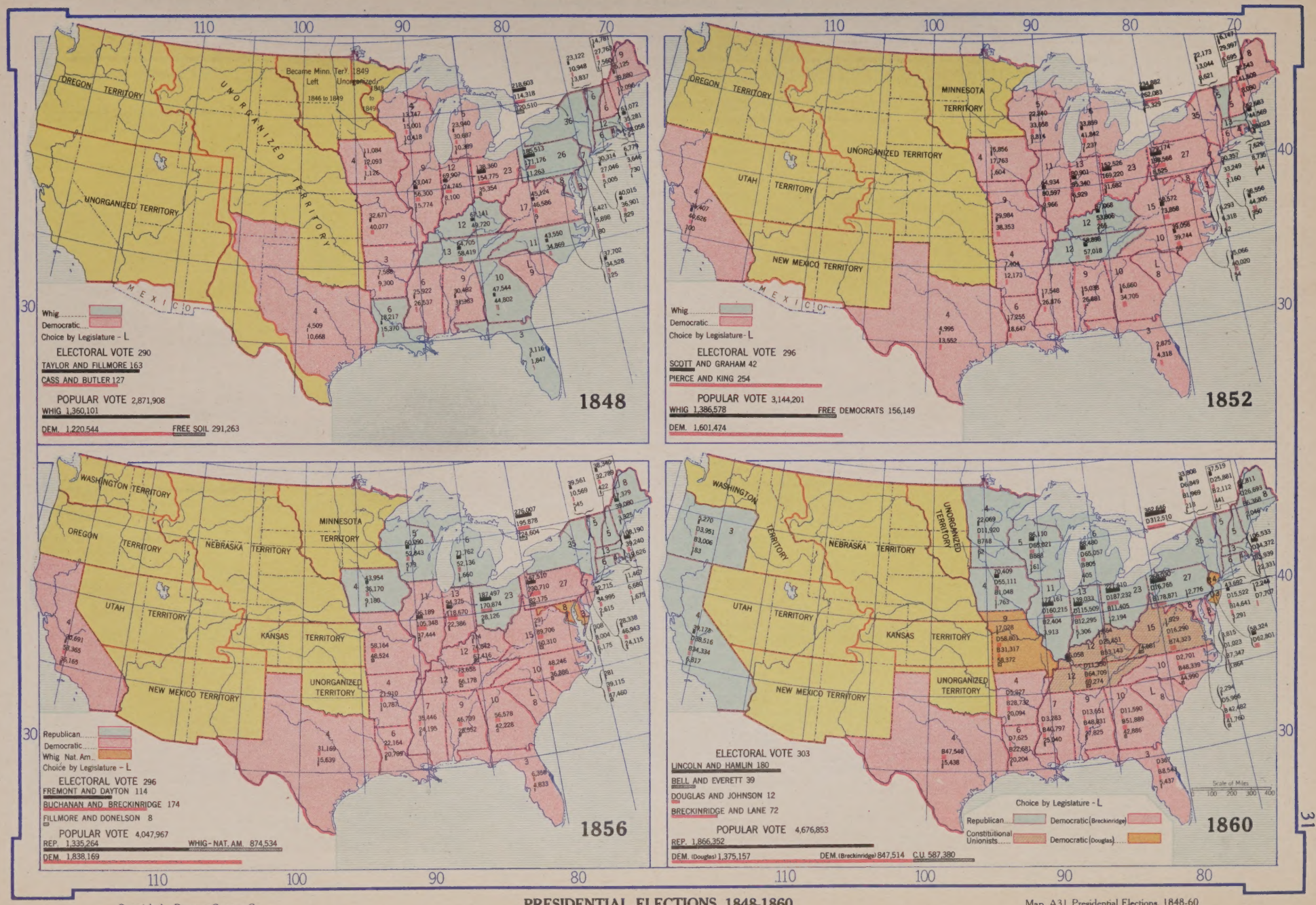
PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS, 1824-1844

Map A30 Presidential Elections, 1824-44



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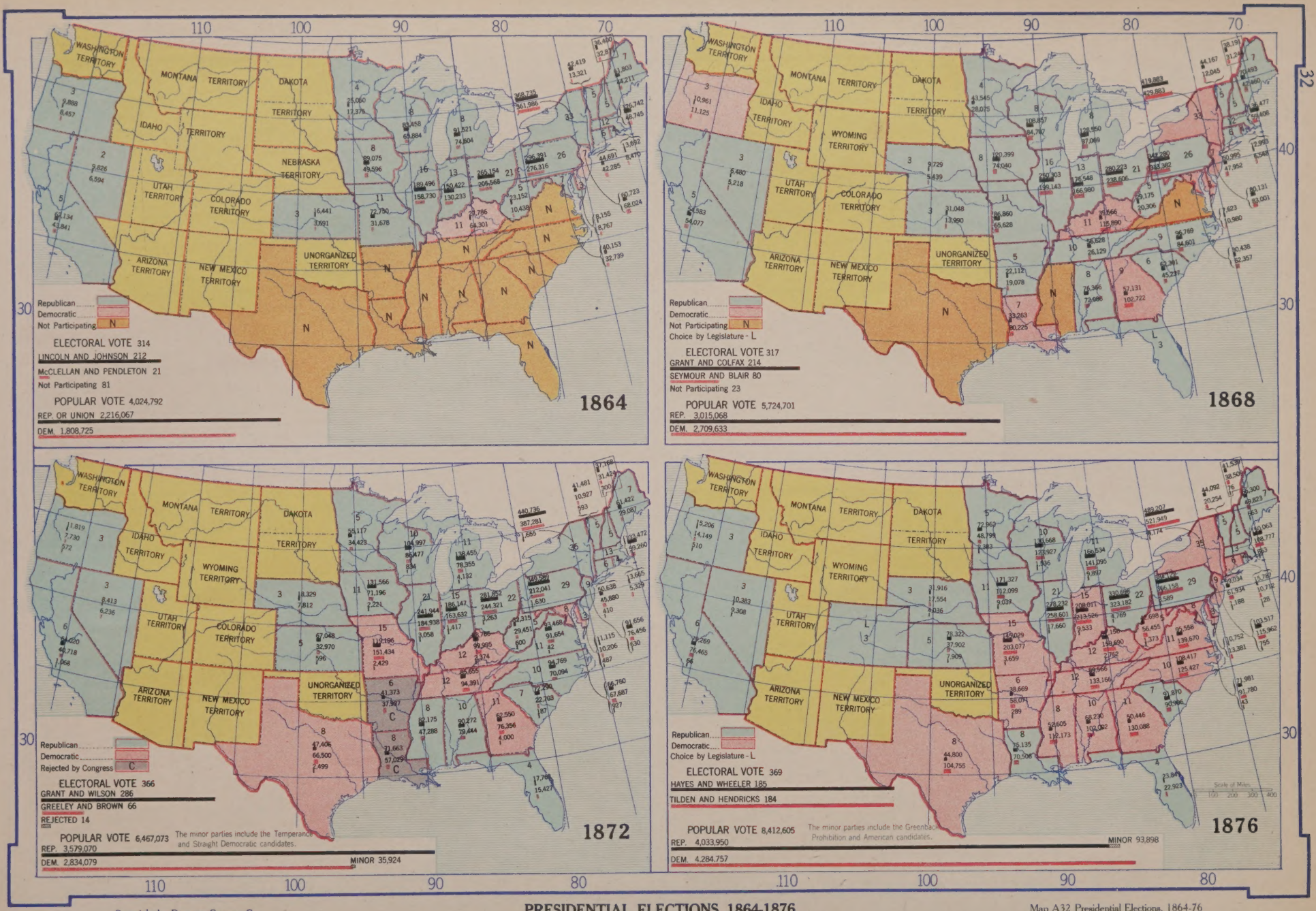
PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS, 1848-1860

Map A31 Presidential Elections, 1848-60



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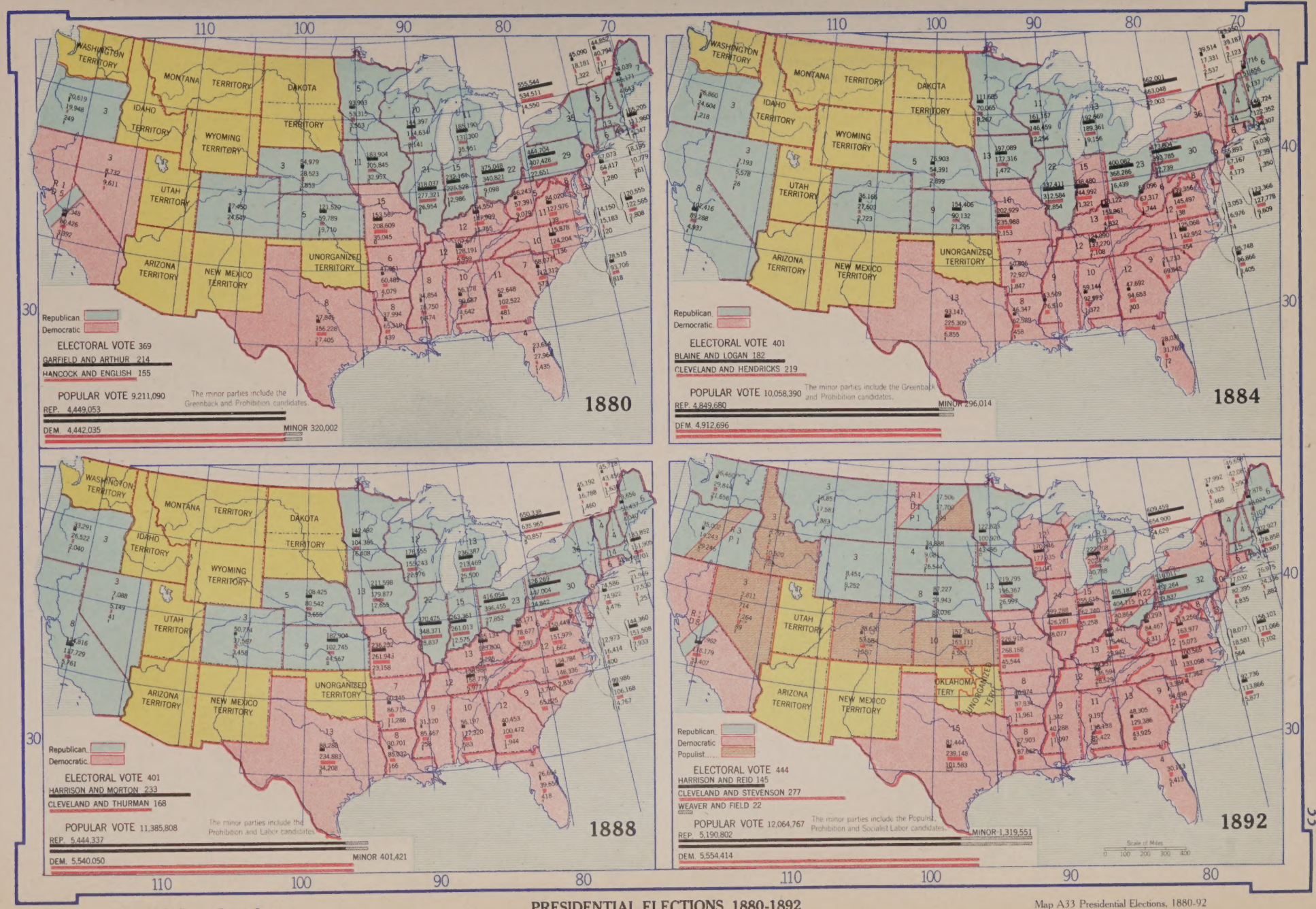
PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS, 1864-1876



PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS, 1880-1892

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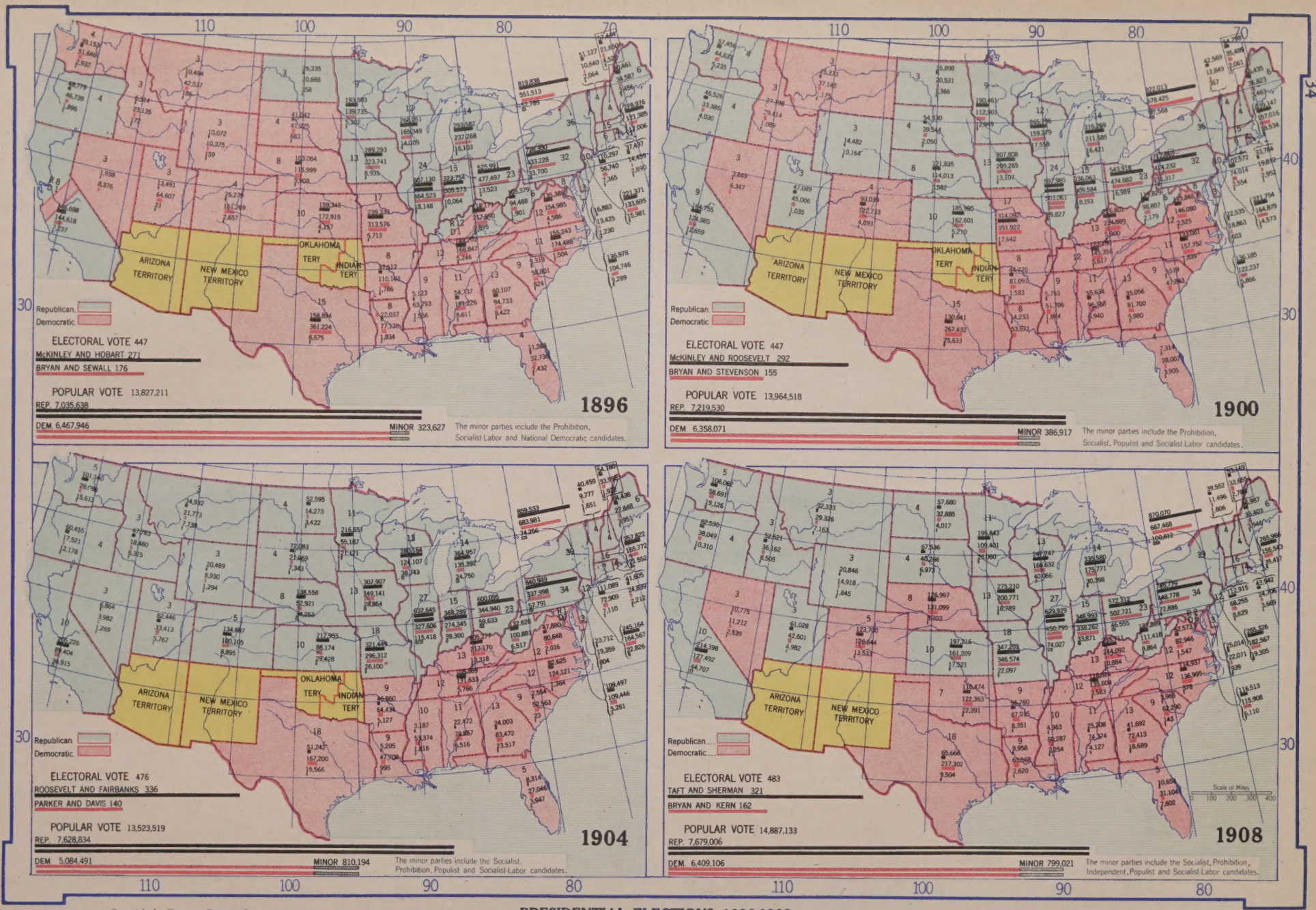
Map A33 Presidential Elections, 1880-92



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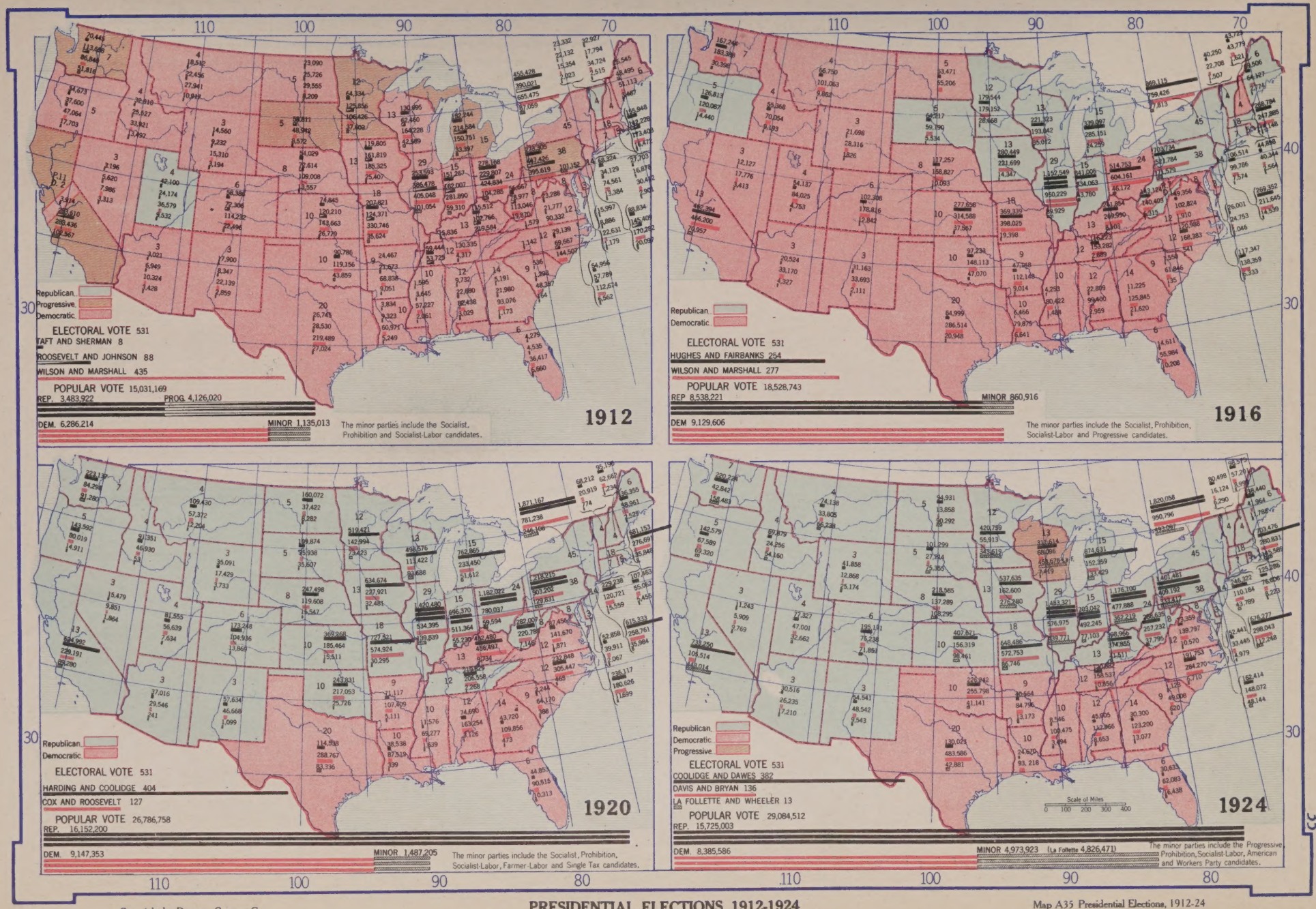
PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS, 1896-1908

Map A34 Presidential Elections, 1896-08



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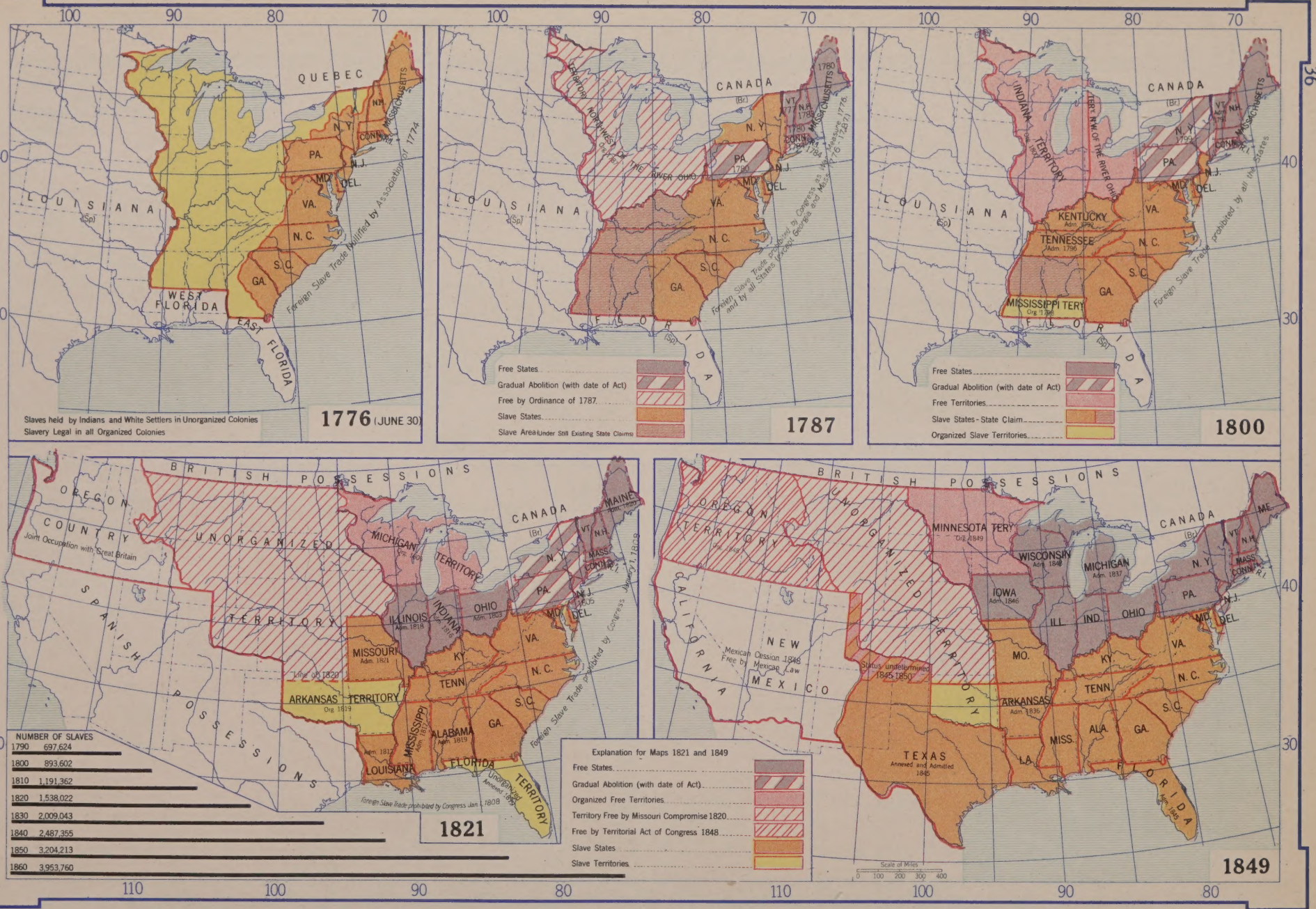
PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS, 1912-1924

Map A35 Presidential Elections, 1912-24



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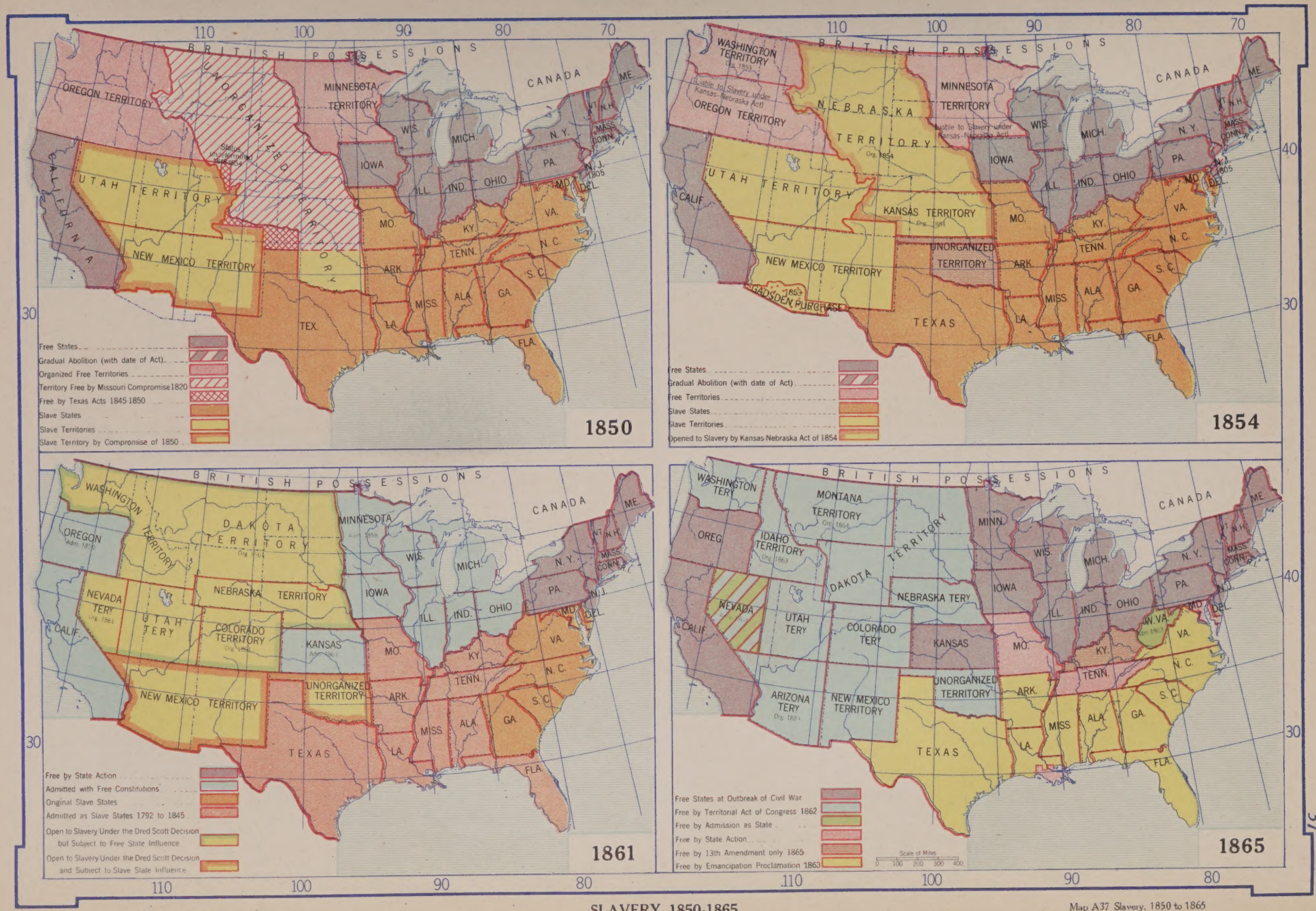
SLAVERY, 1776-1849

Map A36 Slavery, 1776 to 1849



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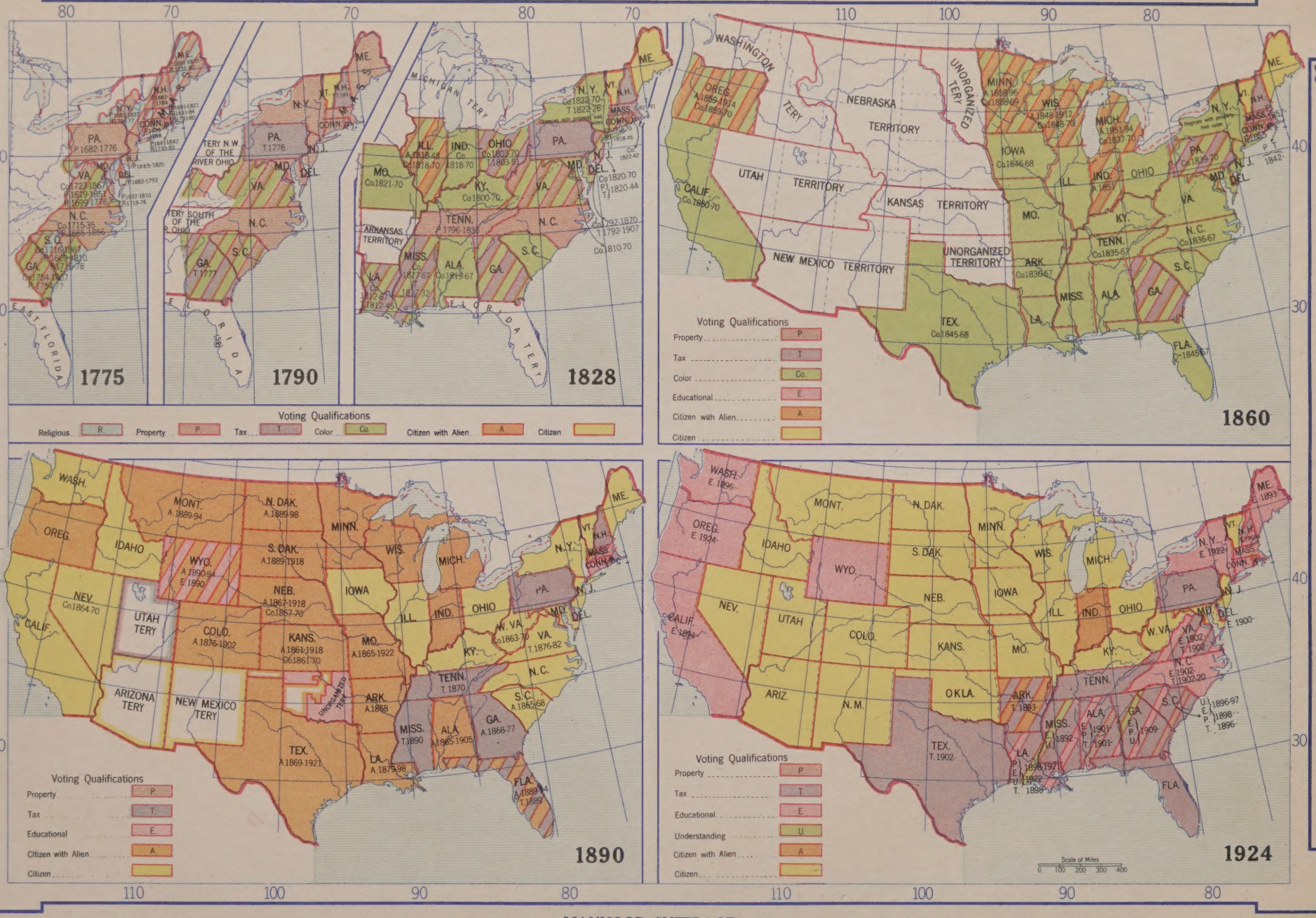
SLAVERY, 1850-1865

Map A37 Slavery, 1850 to 1865



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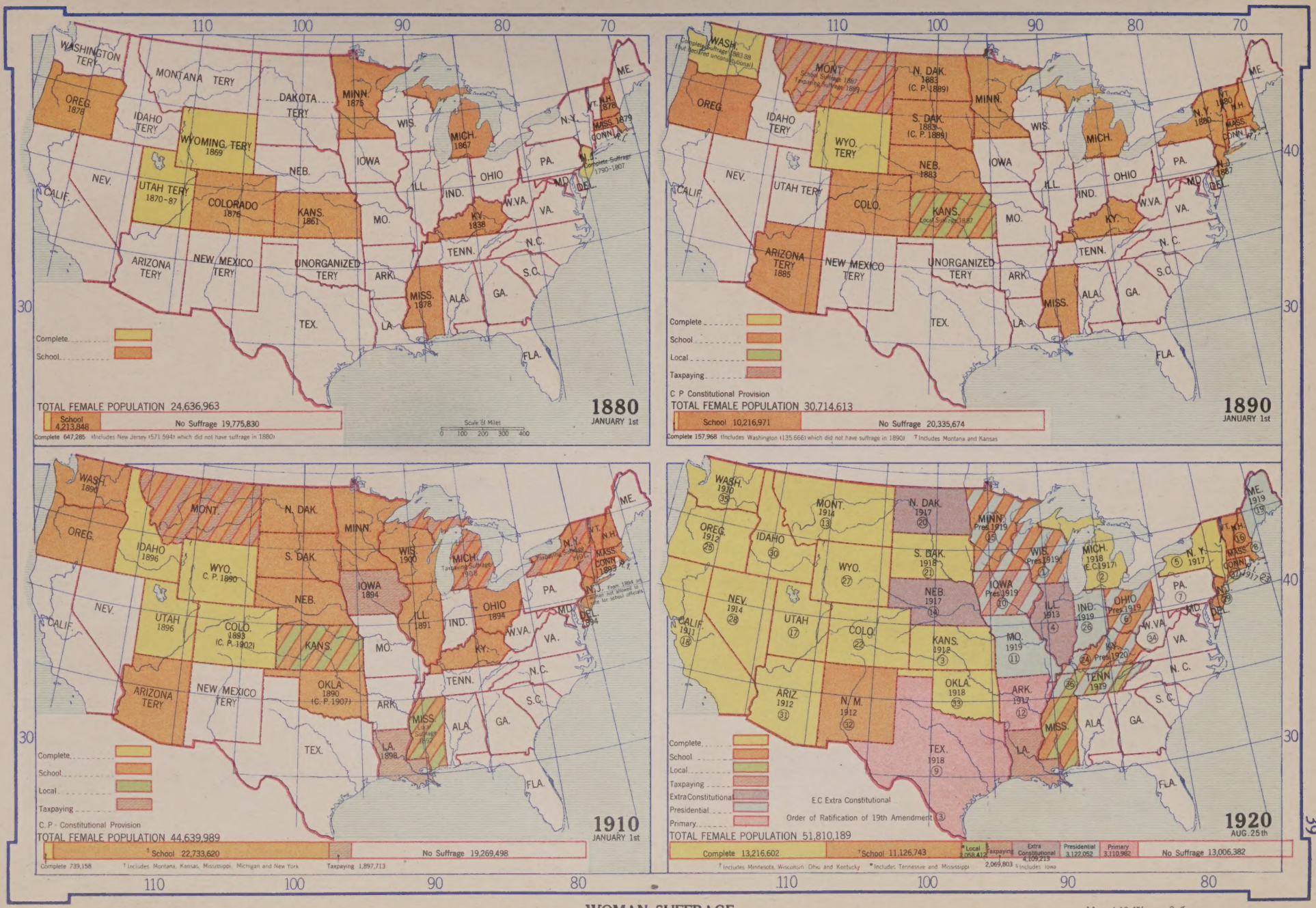
MANHOOD SUFFRAGE

Map A38 Manhood Suffrage



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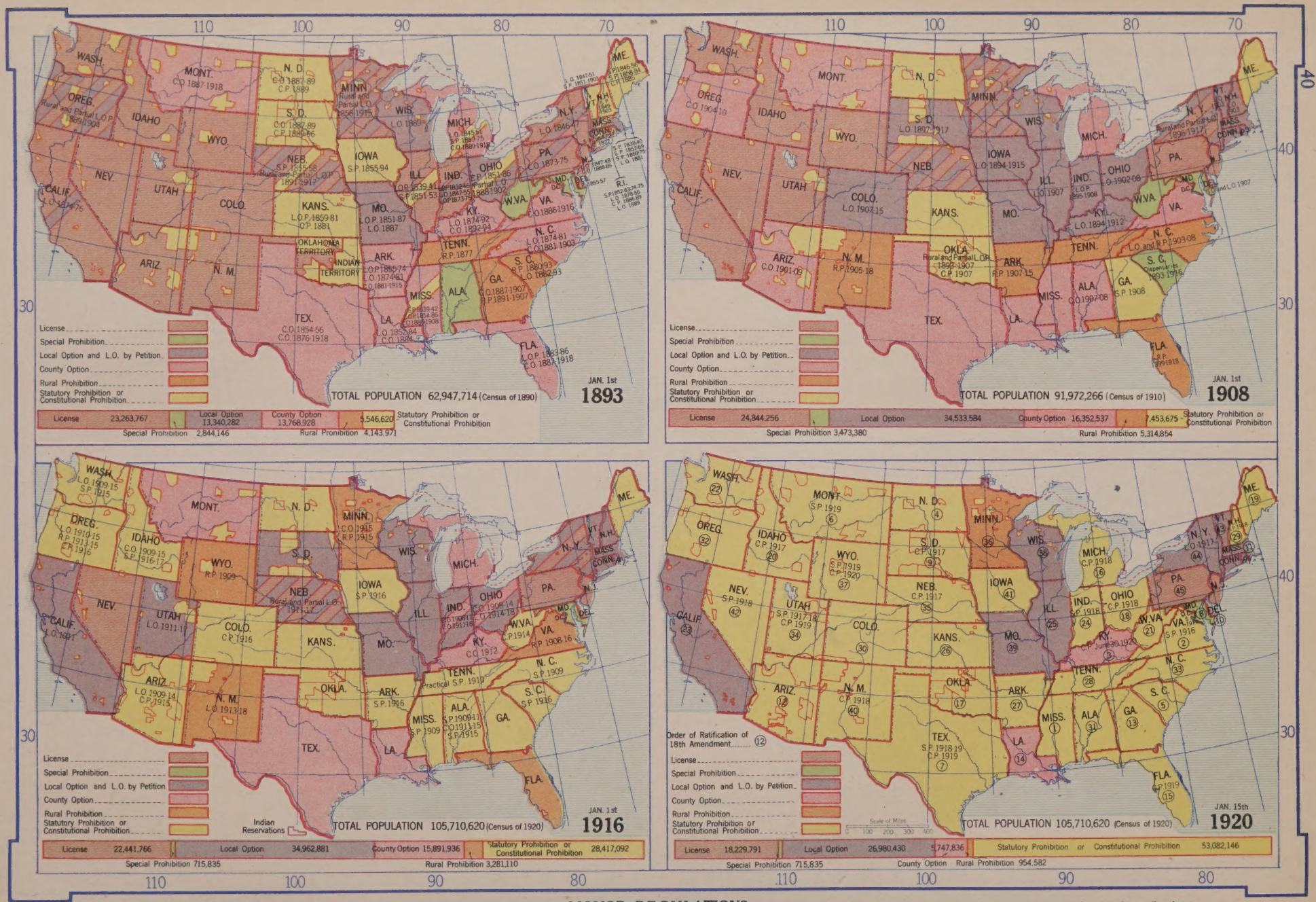
WOMAN SUFFRAGE

Map A39 Woman Suffrage



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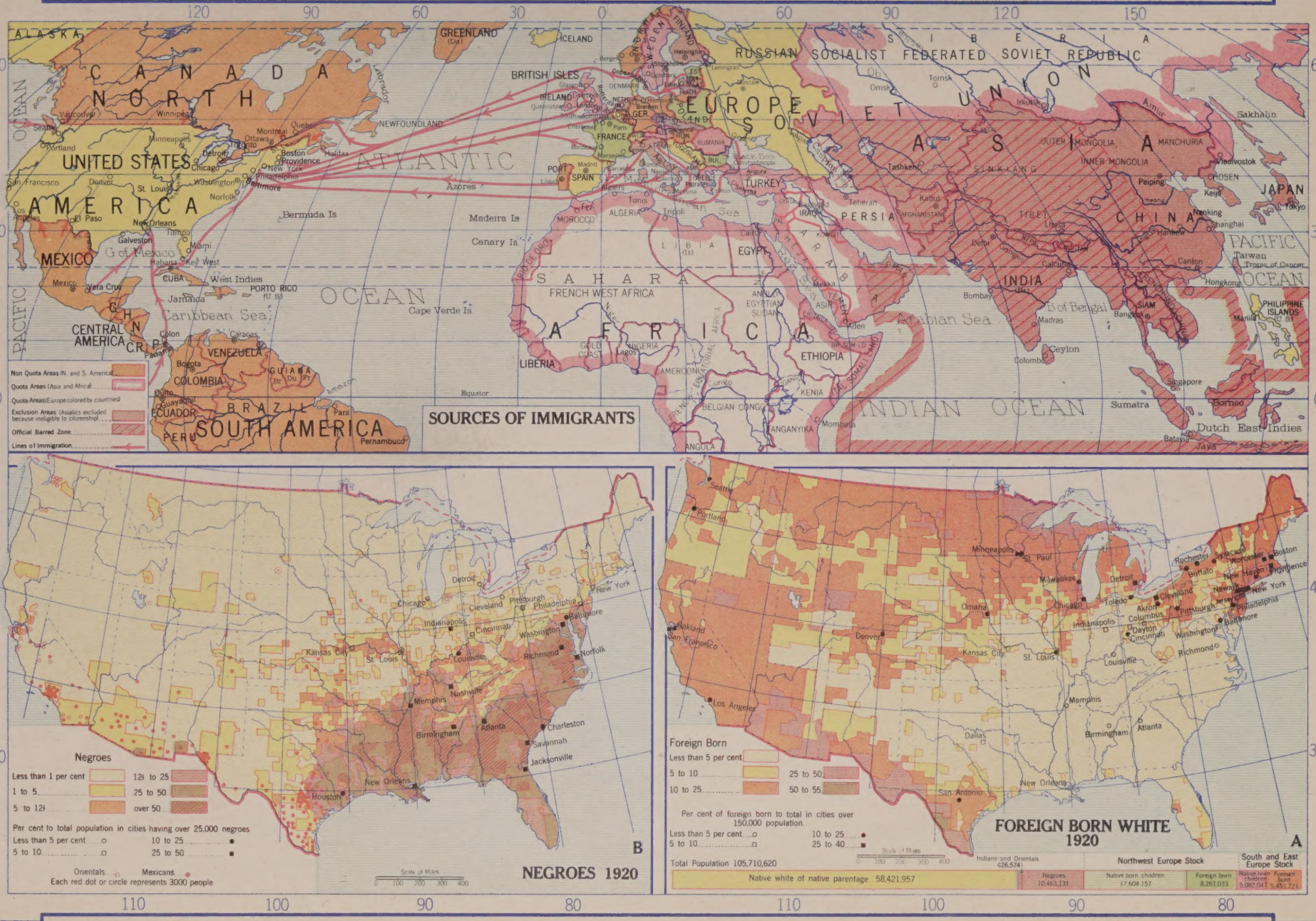
LIQUOR REGULATIONS



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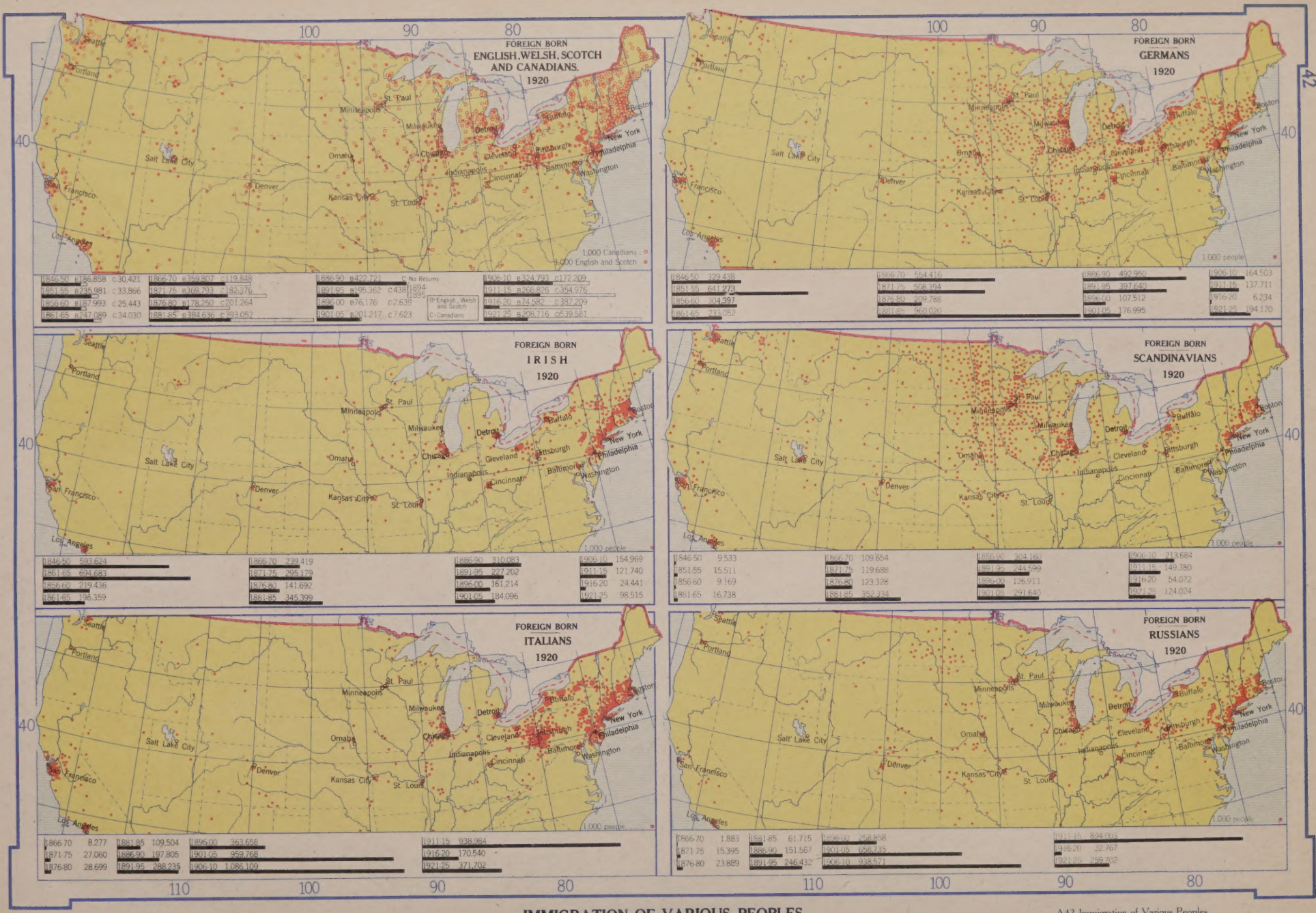
Map A41 Sources of Immigrants



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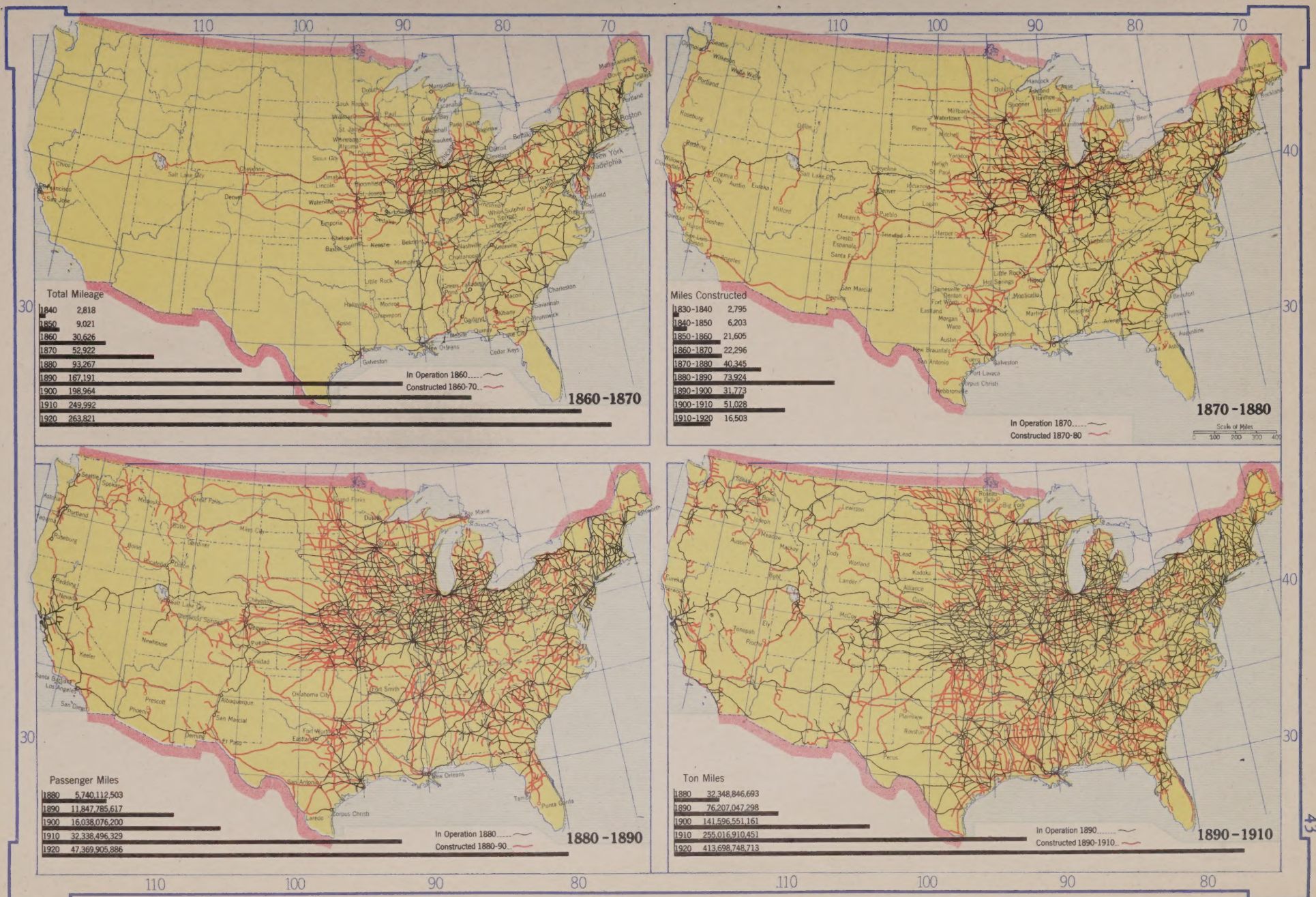
IMMIGRATION OF VARIOUS PEOPLES



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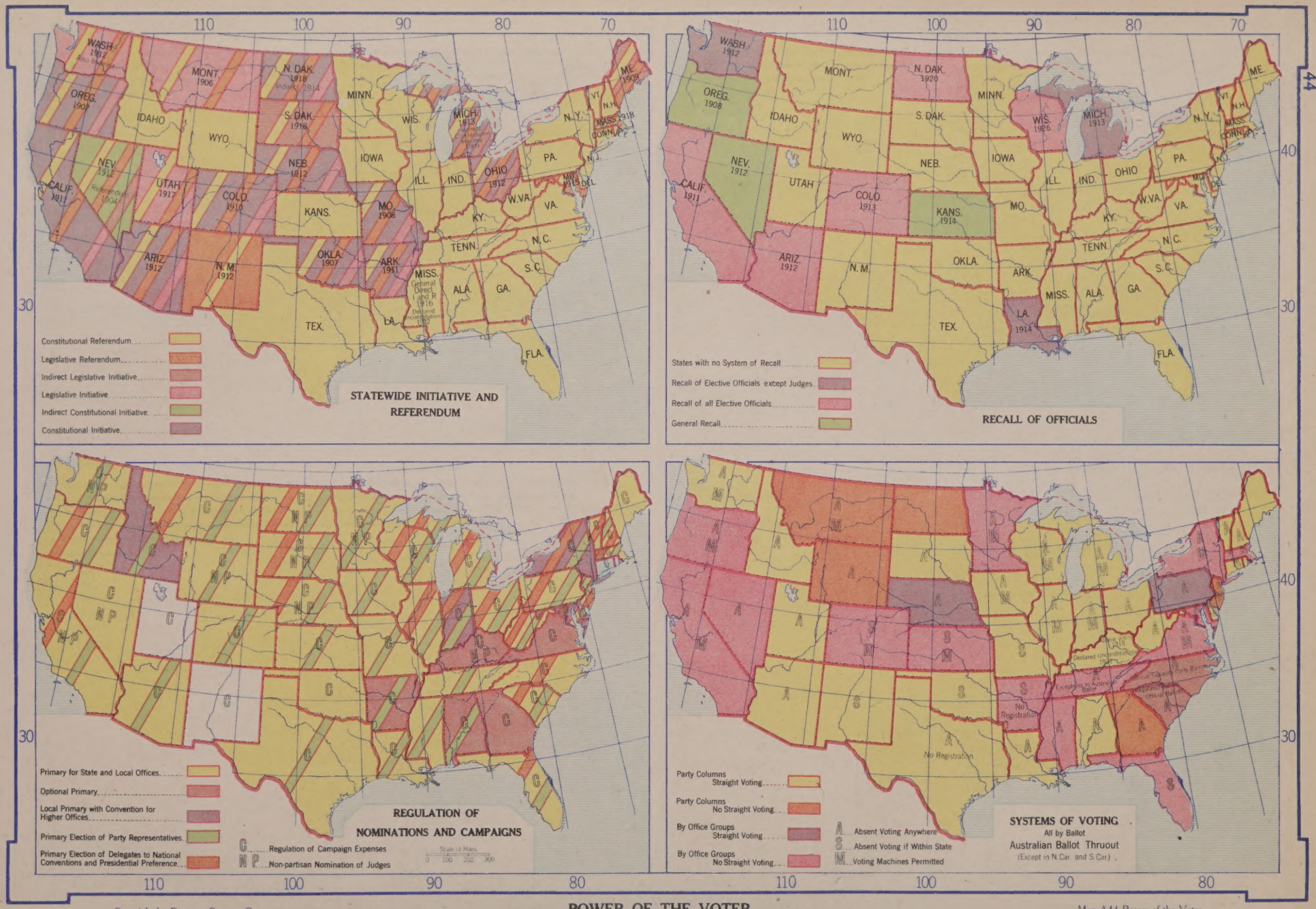
TRANSPORTATION AT VARIOUS PERIODS



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POWER OF THE VOTER

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

SOURCE OF AUTHORITY

THE PEOPLE
Aliens · Voters · Minors etc.
Active Voters · Stay at Homes
The Majority (or Plurality) of Votes Cast

FEDERAL CONSTITUTION
Growth by
Process of Amendment and Interpretation
Court Decisions

TRADITION
Common Law · Precedent

CONSTITUTIONAL LIMITATIONS
Bill of Rights · Specific Limitations · Forms of Amendment

LEGISLATIVE
(MAKES LAWS)

ORGANIZATION

CONGRESS

House of Representatives

Organization	Powers
Speaker	Members and Discipline
Other Officers	Discussion
Employees	Investigation and Reports
Committee on Rules	Impeaching
Standing Committees	Resolutions
Chairmen	Bills

Senate

Organization	Powers
Vice President	Members and Discipline
President Protem	Discussion
Other Officers	Investigation and Reports
Employees	Trying Impeachments
Standing Committees	Resolutions
Chairmen	Bills
	Confirming Nominations
	Ratification of Treaties

Joint Committees
Passing Acts and Joint Resolutions

PRESIDENT
Privileges and Emoluments
Messages and Suggestions
Making Nominations
Removals
Negotiating Treaties
Ratification of Treaties
Vetoing Bills
Approving Bills

U. S. COURTS
Holding Laws Unconstitutional
Construing Treaties
Construing Statutes

Statutes · Treaties
"THE LAW OF THE LAND"

POWERS

Purpose
Preamble of Constitution
Supreme Law Clause

Internal Organization
Federal Elections - Apportionment
Executive Officers in Congress
Journal of Proceedings - Impeachment

Citizenship
Immigration - Naturalization
Interstate Citizenship

Territorial
Acquisition of Territory - Admitting States
Dist. of Columbia-Territories-Federal Sites
Philippines - Unorganized Areas
High Seas - Guaranty to States

Military
Declaring War - Army - Navy - Militia

Finance
Federal Finance - Borrowing
Taxation - Income Taxes

Commerce
Interstate and Foreign Commerce
Post Office - Money - Bankruptcy
Weights and Measures - Patents
Copyright - Currency - Census - Prohibition

Amendments
Submitting Constitutional Amendments

Implied Powers
Necessary and Proper Laws
National Banks and Currency
Chartering Corporations
Protective Tariffs - Aids to Industry etc.

EXECUTIVE
(APPLIES LAWS)

ORGANIZATION

PRESIDENT - VICE-PRESIDENT

Cabinet
Advice to President
Direction of President
Duties prescribed by Law

State
Diplomatic and Consular

Treasury
Finance

War
Military Affairs

Justice
Prosecution and Advice

Navy
Naval Affairs

Post Office
Postal Affairs

Interior
Lands - Indians - Scientific
Reclamation - etc.

Agriculture
Animal and Plant Industry
Farm Management
Weather Bureau,
Forest Service etc.

Commerce
Census - Standards
Fisheries - Mines
Patents - etc.

Labor
Naturalization
Immigration etc.

Choice
Election
Succession
Appointed Official Dept. Heads
Commissions
Civil Service
Interstate Commerce
Federal Trade
Railroad Labor
Shipping
Tariff
Various Government Institutions
Civil Employees
Civil Service System

POWERS

Legislative	Executive	Judicial
Calling Congress	Public Statements	Appointment of Judges
Messages to Congress	Nominations	
Signing Bills	Senate Ratification	
Veto Power	Military Command	Directing Prosecution
Budget		
Negotiation of Treaties	Execution of Laws	Pardon

JUDICIARY
(INTERPRETS LAWS)

ORGANIZATION

Regular Courts	Other Courts	Other Tribunals
Supreme Court	Dist. of Columbia	Administrative Commissions
Circuit Court of Appeals	Territorial	Department Rulings
	Claims	Courts Marshal
District Courts	Consular	Impeachment
Civil Employees		

POWERS

Direct	Indirect
Decision of Cases	Federal Appeal
Issuance of Writs	Holding State Acts and Decisions Unconstitutional
Injunction	Holding Federal Acts Unconstitutional
Contempt	
Interstate Cases	Holding Executive Acts Unconstitutional

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CHART OF FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

Map A45 Chart of Federal Government

STATE GOVERNMENT

SOURCE OF AUTHORITY

VOTERS
- Authority for Making Constitutions
- Authority for Amendments
- Initiative Referendum Recall
- Elections for Offices
- Primary Elections

STATE CONSTITUTIONS
- Limitation in Federal Constitution
- State Constitutions
- Amendments submitted by Legislatures
- Amendments submitted by Initiative
- Constitutional Conventions

GUARANTIES
- Republican Government
- Protection
- Equality in the Nation
- Participation in Federal Amendments

RESERVATIONS
- States retain all powers not vested in U. S. by the Federal Constitution

TRADITIONAL RIGHTS
- Common Law
- Parliamentary Law
- Free Speech
- Freedom of Religion
- etc. etc.

LEGISLATIVE (MAKES LAWS)

Organization		Powers
Upper House	**Lower House**	
Lieutenant-Governor or President	Speaker	Elections and Members
Other Officers	Other Officers	Internal Organizations
Committees	Committees	Debate and Passing Bills
Chairmen	Chairmen	Investigations and Reports
Employees	Employees	Creation of Local Governments
		Taxation and Finance
		Submitting Amendments
		Election of some Executives and Judicial Officers

Joint Committees

Joint Impeachment

EXECUTIVE (APPLIES LAWS)

Organization			Powers
Usually elected by Voters	Usually appointed by Governor		
Governor	Department Heads		Messages to Legislature
Lieutenant-Governor	Agriculture	Public Health	Appointments
Secretary of State	Conservation	Public Welfare	Removals
Treasurer	Defence	Public Works	Militia
Attorney-General	Labor	Registration	Keeping Order
Auditor	Mines	Adjutant-General	Pardons
Superintendent of Public Instruction	Commerce and Trade		Communication with Federal Government
Other Officers	Civil Service		Signing Bills
	Other Boards and Commissions		Governor's Veto Power

The Laws

JUDICIARY (INTERPRETS LAWS)

Organization	Powers
Supreme Court	Criminal Cases
Court of Appeals	Public Prosecutors
Courts of First Instance	Grand Jury
Special Courts	Punishment
Administrative Commissions	Civil Cases
Jury System	Writs
Law and Equity	Injunctions
The Bar	Construing Statutes
	Holding Statutes Unconstitutional

COUNTY GOVERNMENT

VOTERS

LEGISLATIVE		EXECUTIVE	JUDICIARY (Part of State System)	
Organization	Powers	Organization	Organization	Powers
Elected Board of Commissioners or Supervisors	County taxation Appropriations Highways Institutions Minor ordinances etc. etc.	Elected Board of Commissioners or Supervisors County Clerk County Treasurer Sheriff Coroner Superintendent of Schools, Recorder etc. etc.	County or District Court Probate Court Prosecuting Attorneys Jails Justices of the Peace Notaries	Civil Cases Criminal Cases Appeal to Higher Courts

TOWN OR TOWNSHIP GOVERNMENT

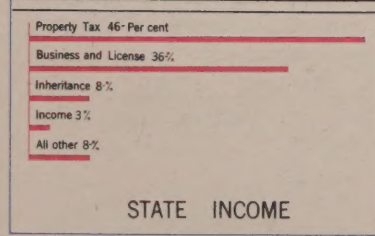
VOTERS

LEGISLATIVE	EXECUTIVE	JUDICIARY
Town Meeting of Voters Town Taxes Assessments Roads Schools etc.	Supervisors or Selectmen Assessor Town Clerk Other Officers	Justices of the Peace Appeal to Higher Courts

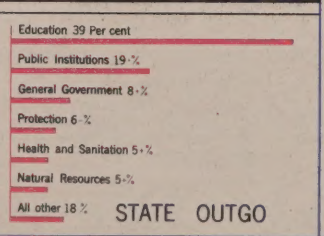
CITIES AND INCORPORATED VILLAGES

- Creation
- Services for the State
- Responsibility to the State

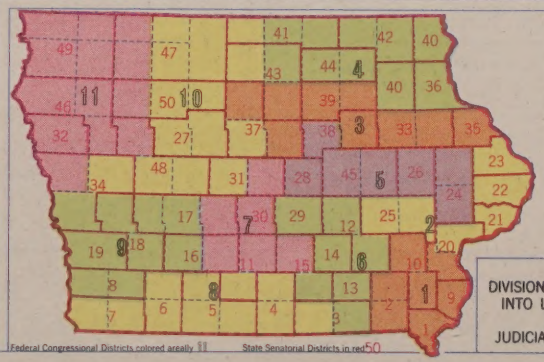
(See also Chart A 47 on City Government)



STATE INCOME

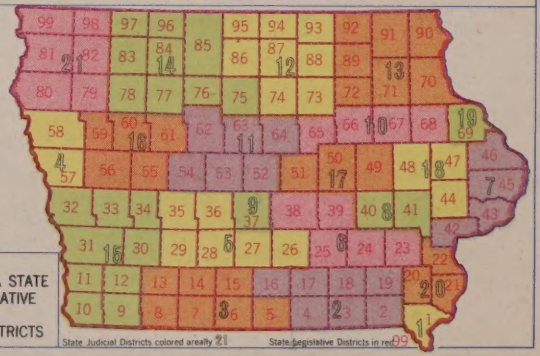


STATE OUTGO



Federal Congressional Districts colored areally 11 State Senatorial Districts in red 50

DIVISION OF A STATE INTO LEGISLATIVE AND JUDICIAL DISTRICTS



State Judicial Districts colored areally 21 State Legislative Districts in red 99

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CHART OF STATE AND COUNTY GOVERNMENT

Map A46 Chart of State and County Government

CITY GOVERNMENT

MAYOR - COUNCIL PLAN

ELECTORATE
VOTERS

LEGISLATIVE

CHARTER
By State Legislature
General
Special
Choice of types
Amendments

CITY COUNCIL
One Chamber or Bicameral

Organization	Powers
City Council elected by wards, or at large or by both Methods Mayor (Presiding Officer) City Clerk Committees Chairmen	Ordinances which are laws for the city.

BOARD OF EDUCATION
Separately Elected or appointed
Schools
School Taxes

EXECUTIVE
MAYOR
BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS
(Appointed or Elected)

FINANCE	PUBLIC SERVICE
Treasurer	Streets and Parks
Auditor	Public Buildings
Assessor	City Planning
Budget	Buildings
Collector	Markets
	Public Works

LAW
FIRE
HEALTH
POLICE
TRAFFIC
LIBRARY
SUPPLIES
CIVIL SERVICE

PUBLIC WELFARE
INSTITUTIONS
LICENSE AND CALLINGS
REGISTRAR ETC. ETC.

JUDICIARY
(Under all Plans)

MUNICIPAL COURTS
Civil
Criminal
Domestic Relations
Juvenile

Other Special Courts
State Courts
Appeals
Application of Statutes and Constitution

COMMISSION PLAN

ELECTORATE
VOTERS
INITIATIVE REFERENDUM AND RECALL
Elects Commissioners at large
As a Board or assigned

BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS
Legislative. Executive and Judicial Powers

MAYOR

COMMISSIONER PUBLIC SAFETY	COMMISSIONER ACCOUNTS AND FINANCE	PUBLIC AFFAIRS	COMMISSIONER STREETS AND PUBLIC IMPROVEMENTS	COMMISSIONER PARKS AND PUBLIC PROPERTY
Fire	Treasurer	City Clerk	Public Utilities	Water Works
Police	Assessor	Law		
Health	Auditor	Library	Engineering, etc.	
Hospital	Purchasing Agent	Municipal Court		
Correction		Civil Service Commission	etc., etc.	

BOARD OF EDUCATION
Elected if not a Commission
Special School Functions

CITY MANAGER PLAN

ELECTORATE
VOTERS
INITIATIVE REFERENDUM AND RECALL

CITY COUNCIL
Elected by districts
Usually by Proportional Representation

LEGISLATIVE

Organization	Powers
President of Council (Mayor) Councilmen Committees	Ordinances which are laws for the city.

EXECUTIVE
CITY MANAGER

FINANCE	PUBLIC SERVICE
City Clerk	Streets
Treasurer	Public Buildings
Assessor	City Planning
Auditor	Engineering,
Budget	Markets etc.
Purchasing Agent etc. etc.	PUBLIC UTILITIES
LAW	Water Works etc.
PUBLIC SAFETY	WELFARE
Fire	PARKS
Police	LIBRARY
Health	etc. etc.
Hospitals	

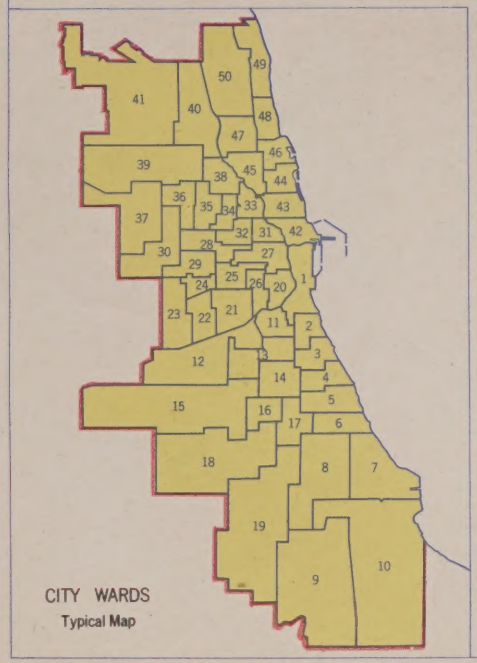
BOARD OF EDUCATION
(May be separately elected)

CITY INCOME

Property Taxes	66 Per cent
Earnings of Enterprises	10%
Special Assessments	5%
Grants, Gifts, etc.	5%
Special Taxes	5%
All other	9%

CITY OUTGO

Education	39 Per cent
Protection	20%
Health and Sanitation	10%
Highways	9%
General Government	9%
Public Institutions	6%
All other	7%



Manager Cities (over 10,000 Pop.)
Commission Form
In Conn. Mass. N. J. and R. I. only cities of over 50,000
In Ill. Ind. Ohio Pa. N. Y. and Del. only cities of over 20,000
Remaining states, cities of over 10,000
Principal Mayor-Council

DISTRIBUTION OF A DOLLAR OF CITY TAXES

City	83 cents
County	10 cents
State	7 cents

TAXES COLLECTED 1922

Federal	$3,204,000,000
All States	$867,552,000
All Counties	$745,000,000
Cities	$1,627,000,000
Other Districts	$1,000,000,000

INCORPORATED VILLAGE GOVERNMENT

VOTERS

LEGISLATIVE	EXECUTIVE	JUDICIARY
Organization Elects Board of Trustees Village President Powers Ordinances which are laws for the Village	President Treasurer Public Engineer Marshal (Chief of Police) Street Commissioners Other Officers	Police Magistrate (Part of State System) Appeals to Higher Courts

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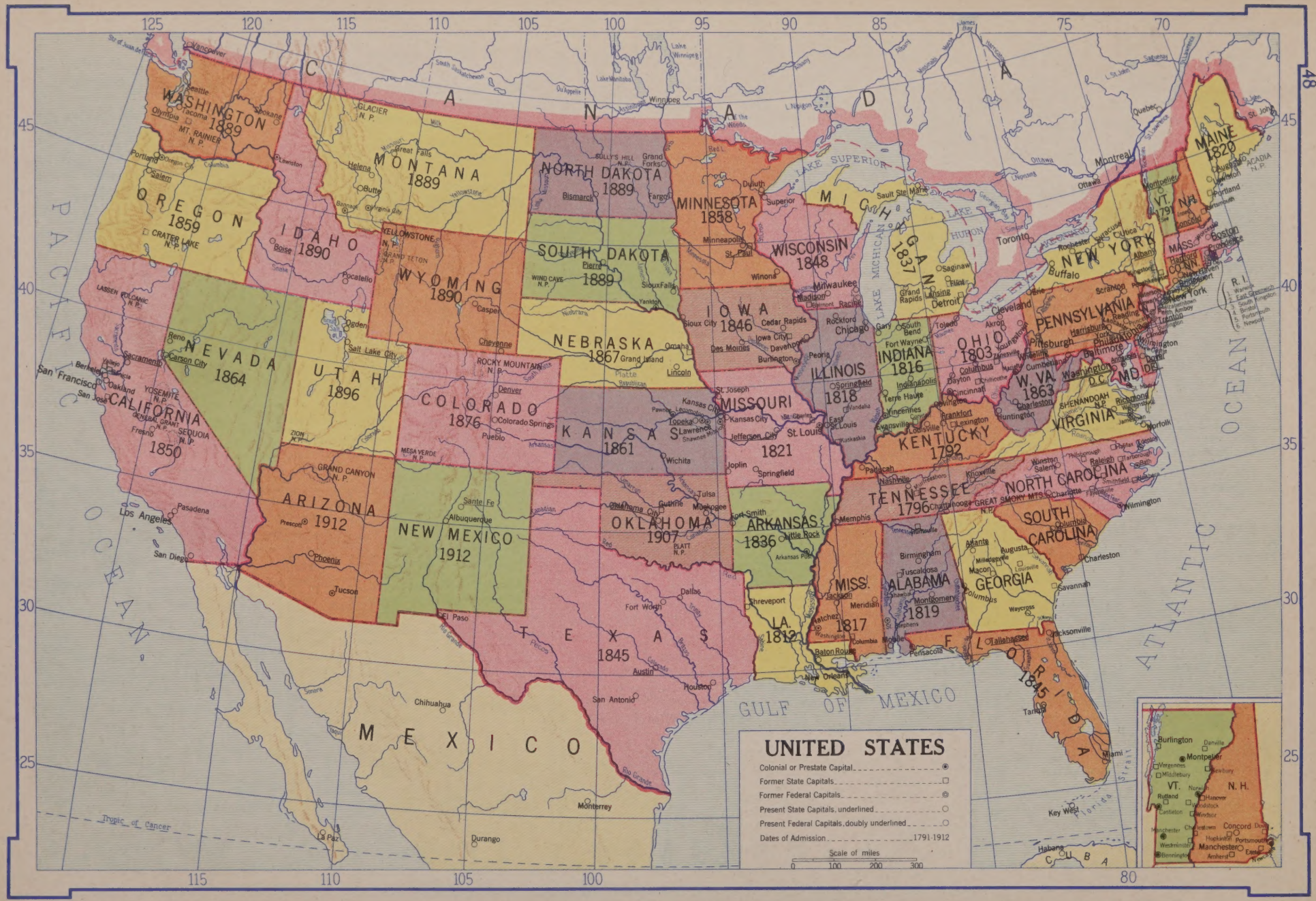
CHART OF CITY GOVERNMENT

Map A47 Chart of City Government



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Map A48 United States Today

is very simple: the Republican party was broken into two nearly equal factions; this division of the Republican vote left many states open to Democratic pluralities. The recovery of power by the Republicans was delayed until 1920 because of the effects of the Foreign war on American neutral trade and other interests, which caused the majority to stand by the Democratic administration then in power. After peace was made in 1919, the country returned to political conditions very like those from 1896 to 1912. By the admission of Arizona and New Mexico to the Union in 1912, the whole continental area (except for the District of Columbia and for government posts) was at last carved into forty-eight politically equal states.

Election of 1912. Not since 1820 has there been such a preponderance of one party in the electoral votes as in 1912. The North, South, West, Far West, and the Pacific coast were all in the same situation. The two small states, Utah and Vermont, aggregating eight electoral votes, were Republican. Eight other states chose eighty-eight "Progressive" Electors, while thirty-eight states carrying 435 electoral votes were for Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey, Democratic candidate, —the largest number of votes ever credited to any candidate for the presidency. This unprecedented result was due to a great split in the Republican party, the seceders taking the name of the Progressive Party. In the spring of 1912 Roosevelt announced that he was a candidate for nomination by the Republican convention. At the Republican convention in Chicago, Taft was renominated. Roosevelt then headed a bolt; a great national party was organized in nearly every state of the North and some of the South. The Progressives cast about 600,000 more votes than the straight Republicans, and the total of the two votes was about 7,600,000 against 6,300,000 cast by the Democrats.

Election of 1916. As has already been pointed out, the outbreak of war in Europe (August, 1914) aroused the people of the United States, but this excitement was not reflected in the political parties. Some Republicans and some Democrats favored military aid to England, France, Russia and Italy, who were allies against the Germans and Austrians. Much more numerous were the Republicans and Democrats who desired to preserve neutrality if possible. Woodrow Wilson, who was renominated without difficulty, was supported by the party cry of, "He kept us out of war." Nevertheless the Republicans were very nearly successful, securing for their candidate, Hughes of New York, 254 votes against 277 for Wilson. The Democrats, however, had a popular plurality of about 600,000. One of the political issues in the elections of 1912 and again in 1916 was the taking up by President Wilson of great questions of corporations, railroads and conservation, which had been so vigorously handled by Roosevelt. The Republican Payne-Aldrich tariff of 1909 and its successor, the Democratic Underwood tariff of 1913, were also to some extent an issue in the election of 1916.

Election of 1920. Apparently contrary to Wilson's expectation, the German Government early in 1917 announced its purpose of sinking American vessels by submarine warfare. Before Wilson's second inaugural on March 4, 1917, war was imminent and on April 6 it was declared by Congress. On November 11, 1918 the combined Allied forces compelled Germany to sue for an armistice that culminated in the peace negotiations of 1919 at which President Wilson took a leading part. Wilson also put forward the plan for the League of Nations. He also signed a treaty by which the United States was to make a defensive and offensive alliance with France and Great Britain. Lacking the necessary votes, President Wilson was not successful in having Congress approve the treaty of peace or the League of Nations plan. The treaty of alliance with France was never brought to a vote. When in June, 1920, the time came to nominate candidates, President Wilson was unable to take any part and James M. Cox of Ohio, an inconspicuous candidate was put up. The Republicans nominated Warren G. Harding, also of Ohio. Some of the Democrats insisted that the League of Nations should still be ratified, some were neutral, and some opposed. Other great issues were not developed in the campaign. Harding received 16,000,000 votes against 9,000,000 for Cox. The map shows that he carried all the North, the Southwest, Maryland, Delaware, West Virginia and Tennessee. The number of popular votes was much increased by the coming to the suffrage of all the adult women in the land who fulfilled the same conditions as men in their state. As in the case of McKinley, the sudden death of President Harding, August 2, 1923, brought to the presidency the Vice-President, Calvin Coolidge of Massachusetts.

Election of 1924. President Coolidge was renominated by the Republicans in 1924 and reelected. An attempt was made under Senator LaFollette of Wisconsin to engineer a split in the Republican party like that under Roosevelt in 1912; and under the old name of Progressive the ticket actually polled nearly 5,000,000 votes, which included most of the votes which usually had gone to the minor parties. LaFollette carried no state, except Wisconsin with 13 votes. The Democratic candidate, Davis of West Virginia, polled 8,400,000 votes, about 700,000 less than the Democratic total of 1920. The Republican vote was also diminished as against 1920 by about 400,000, which, with many other Republican votes, must have gone for LaFollette. In the election of 1924, Kentucky changed by narrow majorities from the Democratic to the Republican column, and Tennessee from the Republican to the Democratic. The Democrats gained also Oklahoma. Otherwise the former line up of the states was not affected.

Election of 1928. The Republicans nominated Secretary of Commerce, Herbert Hoover. The Democrats nominated Alfred E. Smith, then Governor of New York. The platform of the Republicans promised farm relief, tariff revision and the enforcement of the 18th Amendment. The Democrats on their platform condemned the Republican administration on its domestic and foreign policies and in addition Governor Smith took his stand upon advocating fundamental changes in the present provisions for national prohibition. The Republicans carried 40 of the 48 states, including four (Virginia, North Carolina, Florida and Texas) which had been solidly Democratic since the days of reconstruction. The invasion of the "Solid South" was attributed to the Democratic candidate being a "wet" and opposition to his religious persuasion. The electoral vote was 444 for Hoover and 87 for Smith. The popular vote was 21,482,588 for the Republicans to 15,011,115 for the Democrats. (For map, see page xxvii.)

MAP A36. SLAVERY 1776–1849

From their earliest foundation the English colonies in America were confronted by the problem of personal ownership of one group of human beings by another group, while maintaining a democratic spirit in the free group. Both in the northern and southern colonies Indians were from the beginning occasionally enslaved. In 1619 negro slaves were first introduced into Virginia and later into all the southern and middle colonies. Negroes were numerous in the middle colonies and very numerous in the South.

Emancipation Acts. During, or immediately after the Revolution, all the New England states took steps to prohibit the holding of bond slaves and Pennsylvania took the same step, followed by New Jersey and New York. In 1819 slavery was ended or in process of ending in all the states north of Mason and Dixon's line, running east and west between Maryland and Pennsylvania. In all the states south of that line negro slavery continued to exist. By 1800 all the original states had laws forbidding the foreign slave trade, but South Carolina had repealed her act before 1808, when a general prohibition by Congress went into operation. The dates in all the slavery maps indicate the status at the end of the year, with the exception of the first map; the geographic boundaries have been made up to agree with this date. The boundaries of each colony or state are thus including territory which at the date of the map was a part of the geographic units whose status as to slavery is described. The dates of gradual emancipation are dates of the passage of the Act. This did not mean that gradual emancipation began at once but that the Act established a status of freedom subject to such temporary exceptions as might be thought necessary, such as giving the master the labor of children until they reached maturity.

Balancing Free and Slave States. Of the thirteen original colonies, those free by 1820 were New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New York, Pennsylvania and New Jersey (seven in all), to which should be added Vermont admitted in 1791 and Maine set off as a state in 1820. The slaveholding states when the Constitution went into operation in 1789 were Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia, being six. To the nine northern free states must be added Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, so that in 1821 there were twelve states in the Union which did not admit slavery. To the original six southern slave states must be added Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana and Missouri, making twelve states in which negro slavery was legal and general. This equality in the number of free and slave states was not an accident; it meant that in 1821 each of the rival groups had twenty-four senators in Congress. In fact, great pains were taken in admitting new states to offset every new free state by a corresponding slave state. Thus—Ohio, 1803, and Louisiana, 1812; Indiana, 1816, and Mississippi, 1817; Illinois, 1818, and Alabama, 1819; Maine, 1820, and Missouri, 1821.

Slavery in 1776. The two maps 36 and 37 therefore aim to set forth in graphic form the process by which slavery was introduced into the colonies and also how it was expelled from the territory of the United States. The Declaration of Independence would seem to be incompatible with slavery, but it was considered to apply only to men who were free by the law of their state. A few days before the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, in the territory which was later recognized by England as belonging to the United States, not a square foot of ground was exempt from slavery. Likewise, in all the territory outside of the colonial boundaries recognized in 1776 slavery of Indians by Indians and white people was legal and of white people and negroes by Indians.

Slavery in 1787. In 1787 this situation was changed. The New England states and Pennsylvania had adopted laws under which no new slavery could be created. In three states—Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts—slavery was ended once for all. Likewise, by the Ordinance of 1787 passed by Congress all the region included in the territory then created was to be free from slavery. New York

and New Jersey had taken no steps as yet, and in the vast southwestern region west of Virginia, Carolina and Georgia, Indian and negro slavery was unrestricted by law.

Slavery in 1800. By 1800 New York had begun a gradual emancipation, not carried out for more than twenty years. A new territory had been set off in the northwest which, however, remained under the perpetual prohibition of the Ordinance of 1787. The new state of Kentucky was formed by communities which held slaves from their first coming into the country. The territory south of the Ohio river (now Tennessee) had recognized slavery and Mississippi was organized as a territory in 1798 without prohibition of slavery.

Slavery in 1821. In the year 1821 the process of emancipation was completed by a gradual emancipation act in New Jersey. Three states by this time had been organized out of the Northwest Territory, each of them prohibiting slavery in its first state constitution in addition to the general prohibition of 1787. The territory of Michigan remained under the same prohibition. Every state south of Pennsylvania and the Ohio River was slave-holding and so remained until the Civil War. The annexation of Louisiana in 1803 brought into the Union a region in which there was no interference with the holding of slaves by the settlers. Louisiana was admitted in 1812 as a slaveholding state. From 1818 to 1821 there was a running fight on the question of slavery west of the Mississippi and north of Louisiana. The Missouri Compromise of 1820 provided for the admission of Missouri as a slave state with the straight western boundary shown on the map, and otherwise absolutely prohibited slavery in all parts of the Louisiana cession north of the line 36° 30′. That act remained in force until 1854, and in 1857 it was declared to have always been inoperative, by the Supreme Court of the United States. By these transactions, down to 1821, the Union was clearly and definitely divided into two regions of states and territories. In the South Negro slavery was established by law and custom. In the North slavery was absolutely prohibited or fast becoming extinct under "gradual" laws. The division line ran from the Delaware River along the south and west boundary of Pennsylvania to the Ohio River; thence down the Ohio to the Mississippi; thence northwest, west and south around Missouri; thence on the line of 36° 30′ to the western boundary; thence along the western boundary of the Louisiana purchase to the northern line or the forty-ninth parallel.

Slavery in 1849. This sharp division between free and slave states and territory continued decade after decade. The Oregon region, first officially reached by the Lewis and Clark expedition in 1805, doubtless knew Indian slavery; but no negro slaves appear to have been introduced and Congress forbade it by the territorial act for organizing Oregon in 1848. Hence in 1849 the line between free and slave regions in the United States was as it had been in 1821, except that under the Spanish treaty of 1819 that power made no claims north of the forty-second parallel. By treaty Great Britain in 1846 also gave up her claims south of the forty-ninth parallel, and this region constituted the free territory of Oregon. The process described in connection with the map of 1821 for balancing free and slave states continued thirty years longer—Arkansas, 1836, and Michigan, 1837; Florida, 1845, and Texas, 1845, against Iowa, 1846, and Wisconsin, 1848. A great change was brought about in this apparently insoluble problem of slavery by the Mexican cession of 1848, in which slavery was prohibited by Mexican law. The great regions called New Mexico and California therefore were on the face of them free, but it could not be expected that the South would ever accept exclusion of slave-holding planters from the whole of the new annexations. The boundaries between free and slave owning territory laid down in the Missouri Compromise of 1820 were a little altered in 1836 by Act of Congress without protest from the North. The triangle between the upper western boundary of Missouri by the Act of 1820 and the Missouri River was in that year taken out of the unorganized territory and added to the slave-holding area of Missouri.

MAP A37. SLAVERY 1850–1865

In these four maps we can trace the course by which, from a Union made up before 1850 of 15 slave states and 15 free states with about half of the area in the territories open to slavery, we come to the point in 1865 when every state and every territory is absolutely free under the text of the Constitution of the United States. These eventful fifteen years were full of conflict, first, for power of the rival sections and influence in Congress; second, and more important, for occupation of western territory until ready to be carved into new states; third, for the total extinction of the legal right to hold slaves, so that the United States should not be out of line with most of the civilized powers of the world at that time. This process involved the most lively contest in Congress, in nominating conventions, in the public press, in literature, and in the discussions of men and women, that has ever been known in the United States, except during the American Revolution. This process also involved a terrible Civil War which, whatever its other causes, finally came down to the point of deciding whether slavery should be destroyed or perpetuated.

Slavery in 1850. The Compromise Act of 1850 was an effort to secure an act of Congress under which the future of the far-western territories would be determined with respect to slavery. With the exception of the region south of the Ohio River and the territory included in the states of Florida, Missouri, Arkansas, Louisiana, Texas and the present Oklahoma, the United States government up to 1850 sooner or later prohibited slavery in all the new territory that came into its possession, viz., the Northwest Territory, the Louisiana Purchase and the Oregon Territory—all of them west of previous free territory and settled largely from anti-slavery communities. A new question arose when New Mexico and California were annexed. The map shows that the solid block of southern slave states, together with Texas, lay in a belt of country which if prolonged westward would include great parts of New Mexico and southern California; hence a great pressure to make California slave-holding. The discovery of gold in 1848 attracted into California thousands of free men who had no intention of permitting the owners of slaves to put those slaves into competition with the single diggers and miners. California in 1849 drew up a state constitution for itself which prohibited slavery, and on that basis was admitted into the Union in 1850. This left, as the map shows, the region between Texas and the Pacific a possibility for slave-holding, except as made permanently free by the Mexican law. The great Compromise Act of 1850 did not disturb or mention the three previous acts of Congress prohibiting slavery in the Northwest Territory, the Louisiana Purchase and the Oregon region. What Congress did was practically to divide that region and create the two territories of Utah and New Mexico in such a way that owners of slaves who so chose might take their slaves into either of these territories, leaving the Supreme Court of the United States to decide whether such slavery was legal.

Slavery in 1854. The whole country was taken by surprise when Senator Douglas in 1854 drew and forced thru Congress the Kansas-Nebraska Act by the weight of his immense force and skill as a debater and his position as the leading western Democrat. The purport of that act was that Congress had no power to prohibit slavery in any territory; hence that the Missouri Compromise Act of 1820 was null and void and always had been, and the principle of the Compromise of 1850 was extended to the older region. If that was good law for New Mexico or Kansas it was equally valid against the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 and to the act creating the Oregon Territory of 1848. So far as the Louisiana cession was concerned, the Kansas-Nebraska Act provided for the division of the part north of 36°, not already organized, into Nebraska Territory and Kansas Territory. Since Kansas was immediately west of Missouri, a slave state, the presumption was that it would become slave-holding. The ultimate effect of the act was to create in Kansas a fighting ground between north and south, since settlers came in from both sections determined to make the region slave-holding or free. The Supreme Court in the Dred Scott case of 1857 decided that neither Congress nor the voters in a territory could prohibit slavery.

Slavery in 1861. In the next seven years several changes occurred. Minnesota and Oregon were admitted to the Union with free constitutions. Kansas, after a lively struggle between lawless pro-slavery men and some lawless anti-slavery men including the famous John Brown, shortly before the Civil War began, was admitted to the Union as a free state. At the same time no territory was ready to be admitted as part of the pro-slavery group of states to balance California, Oregon, Minnesota and Kansas. Of the thirty-four states in the Union March 4, 1861, nineteen were free and fifteen were slave-holding. This loss of the balance of power in Congress which had been preserved in the Senate for forty years was one of the reasons for setting up a Southern Confederacy, which might make its own decisions on slavery and at the same time was bound to insist on a share of the immense unsettled territory beyond the Missouri River and Texas. This movement took eleven states out of the Union.

Slavery in 1865. By the end of 1865, after the Civil War, slavery had actually and legally ceased to exist anywhere within the limits of the United States. The process began with acts of Congress in 1862 prohibiting slavery in the District of Columbia and in the territories, which was straight in the teeth of the Dred Scott decision. Therefore all the territory not included in states between the Missouri River and the Pacific was free from slavery, including the unorganized territory now the state of Oklahoma. Whether this was beyond the power of Congress is now immaterial because the Thirteenth Constitutional Amendment, duly ratified by three-fourths of the states in 1865, absolutely prohibited slavery anywhere in the United States or within its jurisdiction. Before the climax, however, several areas had been cleared of slavery by direct state action. Nevada and West Virginia (separated from Virginia) were admitted to the Union with free constitutions. Maryland and Missouri took action thru their state governments for the emancipation of slaves. Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation of 1863 applied to all the states or part of the states within the Confederate lines at its date—and that meant most of Virginia and Louisiana and nearly all of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas and Texas—in all ten states. These states, except Texas, with the addition of Tennessee, the other member of the late Confederate States, had also, before the Thirteenth Amendment became effective, abolished slavery by state

constitutional amendment. When the Thirteenth Amendment went into effect in 1865 the only two regions in the United States not already covered by some form of state or national action were Kentucky and Delaware, which were transferred from slavery to freedom by the Amendment.

MAP A38. MANHOOD SUFFRAGE

Students of American political and constitutional history are aware that colonial democracy was a very different thing from revolutionary democracy, which again meant something far removed from the democracy of the Twentieth Century. Our idea of universal suffrage was not completely realized until the Woman Suffrage Constitutional Amendment of 1920. In the first portion of the Nineteenth Century, in almost all the states serious property and tax qualifications reduced the eligibles to the suffrage. Before the Revolution, therefore, the suffrage was practically the privilege of not more than from one-fifth to one-third of the adult males. The nature and extent of these limitations on suffrage are set forth in the six maps. The maps are as of the end of the year and the geographical conditions accord with this.

The maps show how far particular qualifications such as property, tax or religion continued in force. Manhood suffrage is understood in all the maps; the requirement of registration (considered in map A44) and certain minor social and physical disqualifications are ignored. Citizen suffrage underlies the maps, and the blocks of other color are limitations on this, except that "alien suffrage" meant that in addition to citizen suffrage aliens who had declared their intention of becoming citizens (the first step in naturalization) could also vote.

Suffrage in 1775. As will be seen by the map, every colony in 1775 required property, and at least five required religious qualifications. Negroes were distinctly excluded from the suffrage at that time only in Virginia, South Carolina and Georgia, tho most of the free negroes were shut out by the property qualifications. The dates here and later state the beginning and end of the various qualifications imposed on manhood suffrage; a single date signifies that the conditions continued thru 1924. The dates also indicate some temporary qualifications not shown in color.

Suffrage in 1790. After Independence, religious qualifications disappeared and tax qualifications took the place of property in New Hampshire, Pennsylvania and Georgia. Property requirement implies a tax-paying, but the reverse is not necessarily true. Tax might mean merely a poll or be much more liberal, even nominal, as a requirement. These two qualifications were sometimes alternative. In Vermont we have the only state at that time which established universal suffrage to adult males who were citizens.

Suffrage in 1828. By 1828 the number of states had increased to 24. The voting privilege of any male citizen of proper age was enjoyed only in Maine and Vermont. Color restrictions stood in the law of four northern states, New York, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Jersey, in all the western states and in all the southern states except Tennessee and North Carolina, in which last state there were said to be at that time a thousand respectable negro voters. Except in Missouri, Alabama, Kentucky, Indiana, Illinois, Maine, Vermont, South Carolina, Maryland and New York a tax or property qualification was still required; but evidently the country was reaching toward a white citizen manhood suffrage. In ten states there was no barrier, and in eleven more, merely the tax qualifications. In this map first appears the alien stripe, in Illinois. Alien suffrage voting in early times is obscure. Several states gave "freemen" or "inhabitants" otherwise qualified the suffrage. To what extent this was made to include aliens—e.g., in Pennsylvania, Delaware, New Jersey, New England and Ohio—cannot be stated, but the balance of evidence does not favor the admission of such persons by 1828 except in Illinois.

Suffrage in 1860. The first thing that strikes the eye in the map of 1860 is the almost universal prohibition of negro voting. On the other hand, the principle of the right of the white male citizen to vote existed in all the states but seven; in six of these there was a tax-property barrier, and in two an educational one. The great patch of white territory shows regions in which the only suffrage was for local officials, territorial legislatures and delegates to Congress, and two areas of territory possessed no organized government at all.

Suffrage in 1890. An immense change in public policy is seen in the suffrage between 1860 and 1890. Nearly all the Union was organized in states in 1890, and each state made its own laws on suffrage. One immensely significant change is the disappearance of the color bar, because the Fifteenth Amendment, added to the Constitution in 1865, establishes that "The right to citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any States on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude." The tax qualification has extended to Mississippi, Tennessee and Florida. In 1860 five northern states, including Oregon, were offering suffrage to non-naturalized aliens who had filed notice of their intention to be naturalized and thus become full citizens. In 1890 this provision was extended to six southern states (including Missouri), to seven other far western states, and had existed in Georgia and South Carolina.

Suffrage in 1924. In 1924 the country was divided into three groups of suffrage legislation. In all the west and Pacific Coast states, no tax-property qualifications existed, but in Wyoming, Washington, Oregon and California an educational qualification was made. This form of restriction began in Connecticut and Massachusetts in the fifties and was adopted in Wyoming in 1890. In 1924 there was an educational restriction in every New England state except Vermont and Rhode Island, and also in New York and Delaware. Alien suffrage had disappeared in all the states except Indiana and Arkansas. In the southern states, Maryland, West Virginia, Kentucky, Missouri and Oklahoma stood by the right of a citizen to vote without serious limitations altho the Supreme Court had found it necessary to declare unconstitutional a negro restriction in the last. In most of the other southern states there existed either property or tax or educational qualifications or a peculiar provision commonly called the "understanding clause" all of which were intended to keep down the negro vote and admit the poor or uneducated white citizens, the alternative qualifications being particularly designed for this purpose.

MAP A39. WOMAN SUFFRAGE

Thruout colonial times women had no share in elections in any colony except Maryland, where a woman who had the necessary qualifications might be accepted as a voter. Otherwise, the laws appear to have been uniform in colonies and states in restricting the suffrage to males. About 1850 there sprang up a movement in the United States for the general improvement of the legal status of women as to holding property, the right of descent, etc. This speedily led to a demand for suffrage on equal terms with men. The results of that movement in its early stages are registered on the map for 1880. In several directions it was recognized that women have a special interest and knowledge, particularly in educational matters and in local government, and this gave rise to partial grants of suffrage, the course of which can be traced from decade to decade.

Woman Suffrage in 1880. This map furnishes a history of the first approaches to woman suffrage. The territory of Wyoming was created in 1868, and the next year the legislature, acting under the permission of Congress to fix its own terms of suffrage within certain limits, extended that suffrage to women. The same thing was done in 1870 in Utah Territory, first established in 1850; but in 1887 Congress in the act against the Mormon Church abolished the right. Beginning in 1838 in Kentucky nine states in various parts of the Union accorded school suffrage before 1800. The situation of New Jersey demands special attention. From 1790 to 1807 the constitution and laws did not make a distinction between men and women in the matter of suffrage, and the right was occasionally exercised.

Woman Suffrage in 1890. In the next ten years school suffrage was accorded to women in Vermont, New York, New Jersey, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana and Arizona. In the Territory of Washington, from 1883 to 1888, women had complete suffrage under the law; but that action was held to be unconstitutional. Two new features for woman suffrage were introduced, the first in Kansas where women were given suffrage in local elections, which carried with it the right to be elected to local office. In Montana and several other states women tax payers were allowed to vote under certain conditions and on certain questions; but on January 1, 1890, the only area in the United States where women had full and equal suffrage privileges was the territory of Wyoming.

Woman Suffrage in 1910. In the next twenty years woman suffrage in one form or another extended to twenty-nine of the forty-eight states and territories in the Union. Full suffrage was accorded in Idaho, Wyoming, Utah, Colorado; school suffrage in many other states; local suffrage in Mississippi. The map shows clearly that the northeastern, western and far western areas were far advanced in woman suffrage, which halted in the South and in California and Nevada.

Woman Suffrage in 1920. Just before the Nineteenth Amendment went into force in 1920 the area of some form of woman suffrage covered nearly the whole Union, with the exception of the coast states from Pennsylvania to Alabama and also West Virginia. Complete woman suffrage existed in New York and Michigan and extended from the Missouri River to the Pacific, excepting North Dakota, Nebraska and Texas, all of which had incomplete suffrage. School, local, and taxpaying suffrage had been adopted in most of the remaining states. Women in Illinois were allowed to vote for president in the election of 1916, and would have voted in twelve other states in 1920 even if the Nineteenth Amendment had not been in force, tho not for state officers, except in three states for extra-constitutional officers; that is, those whose elections were not especially ordered in the state constitution. In Arkansas and Texas they received the primary vote; that right being of greater value in the South, where the real contest is for the Democratic nominations. In New England, Maine and Rhode Island had given presidential suffrage; the other states did not go beyond school suffrage. Under the suffrage amendment of 1920 no voting distinction can be made between men and women by any state or by Congress.

MAP A40. LIQUOR REGULATIONS

Among the earliest legislation in the colonies were acts by the various assemblies and local governments regulating the liquor traffic. This legislation continued and accumulated all the way down to and thru the Revolution. From this series of maps it may be seen in what directions and at what time the restrictions came to be expressed in various forms such as license, local option, state action, etc., up to January 17, 1920, the date when the Eighteenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution went into force. The system of total prohibition then and there became the law of the whole United States. The graphs at the foot of the four maps present, more accurately than is possible thru a geographical map, the total number of people living under the various systems of restriction. It will be noticed that from 1893 to 1920 in every state the liquor traffic was subject to some form of restriction. People under more than one kind of regulation are numbered under the severer, according to the order in the schedule. Inhabitants of Indian reservations are numbered under Statutory prohibition. The maps attempt to show direct legislation, general optional legislation, or, where these are lacking, a general policy of special prohibition. States are colored according to the severer restriction active at the time of the map, which in all cases except the last is the beginning of the year. The last map is dated just before national prohibition went into operation. Lesser restrictions are shown by initials other than those of the particular color, except that where there was only partial (mainly rural) local option that color is barred with the license color. A single bar shows where, before the period of the map, the state had had a severer restriction from which she had reverted. The dates on the maps show many conditions not indicated by the colors, conditions which had ceased before the period of the map, or existed side by side with the colored restriction. No license dates are given; these go back in all cases to the earliest times in each state or territory. The principle of the license system is that no one can legally sell liquor without a public license, for which a fee, often a very large one, may be charged. The Special Prohibition stands for local acts, each of which forbade the sale of liquor within certain prescribed limits. Local Option means that the localities—districts, towns, cities, even portions of municipalities—of the state could vote for a year or other legal period either to allow or to prohibit the sale of intoxicating liquor. Another form, more popular in the earlier days, was brought into action by a majority petition (L.O.P.) without formal balloting. County Option was the same method applied to counties as units. "Rural Prohibition" prohibited the sale of liquor in portions of the state outside the special organizations—towns and cities. Statutory or Constitutional Prohibition means state-wide abolition of the sale of liquor, either by statute or constitutional provision.

Liquor Regulation in 1893. Without trying to go into details, we see by the first map how far the process had gone in 1893. The old-fashioned license method prevailed in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Indiana, Illinois and most of the Far Western and Pacific states. Special Prohibition was, with license, the only restriction in Maryland, West Virginia and Alabama. Local option could exist side by side with license for those parts of the state not voting "dry" in the local option, or where the option was only partial. The system existed in whole or part in nine states in 1898, and had had wider application.

County option was the system in a number of the states and in Montana. Rural prohibition was confined to three of the southern states, two of which had local or county option also. The straight-out prohibition states in 1893 were three of the New England states, Iowa, North Dakota, South Dakota and Kansas, seven in all. Inasmuch as the United States government prohibited the sale of liquor on an Indian reservation or to a reservation Indian, considerable areas in the Northwest and Far West were prohibition territory. The map shows that something like one-eleventh part of the population of the Union was living under legal prohibition in 1893.

Liquor Regulations in 1908. In the fifteen years after 1893 license lost ground and local option was the favorite method of dealing with the liquor problem. The thick and thin anti-prohibition states were Pennsylvania, New Jersey and six states in the Far West and Pacific slope. The rise of county option in Alabama changed its status tho the special prohibition acts remained in force. Local option held nearly all of New England and the West. Rural prohibition had gained some ground in the southern states, being added to local or county option as in Florida and Arkansas. Absolute prohibition had been repealed in Vermont, New Hampshire, South Dakota and Iowa. Oklahoma was admitted in 1907 as a state with constitutional prohibition. Local option then applied to the largest block of national population and was the most popular method.

Liquor Regulations in 1916. Eight years later straight license remained the legal system only in Pennsylvania, New Jersey and Nevada, and also in a considerable part of the state of New York and in part of Nebraska, while in Maryland nothing was added to it but the special prohibition acts. Local option extended to Utah and California, and New Mexico had added it to rural prohibition. It or county option had also existed temporarily in Idaho, Washington, Oregon and Arizona, but had been abandoned in favor of absolute prohibition by these states and also by Iowa, Colorado and most of the southern states. That is, the West and the South were by this time very solid for prohibition. In Tennessee the prohibition was not formal, but, due to the extension of the so-called "Four Mile Law" to the whole of the state, it was practically prohibition territory, and is so colored. The Middle West was still strong for local or county option, as was New England. License and local and county option together were still legal for about 73,000,000 out of 106,000,000 of the national population, on the basis of the census taken four years later.

Liquor Regulations in 1920. The whole liquor situation was profoundly affected by the entrance of the United States into the World War in 1917; for the Congress of the United States came to the conclusion that the sale of liquor would interfere with the efficiency of the military service. Hence by Act of November 11, 1918, the manufacture and sale of all intoxicating liquors in the United States ceased temporarily on July 1, 1919. Then the Eighteenth Amendment, absolutely prohibiting the manufacture, transport or sale of intoxicating liquor in the United States, was ratified by the action of the legislature of thirty-six states, on or before January 16, 1919; and nine other states eventually ratified the amendment, being a total of forty-five states, the exceptions being Rhode Island, New Jersey and Connecticut. This Amendment which went into effect January 17, 1920, nullified or superseded every state or constitutional provision which was not in accordance with it. What was the state of the country on liquor regulation on the day immediately preceding the taking effect of the constitutional amendment? The map of 1920 shows that Pennsylvania and New Jersey retained their license laws to the end. Local option laws of one type or another were still in force in nine states, including New York and Massachusetts. County option held its own only in Delaware, Kentucky, Louisiana and Minnesota. Rural prohibition also existed in Minnesota. Maryland had still only the special prohibition of local laws. Absolute prohibition was the rule at that time in thirty-two of the forty-eight states, including more than one-half of the population of the United States. On a county basis it is estimated that ninety-five per cent of the land area of the United States was "dry" and that this area contained sixty-eight per cent of the nation's population in 1919.

MAP A41. SOURCES OF IMMIGRANTS

Writers on the history and politics of the United States agree that one of the most important influences on the development of this country and the establishment of ideals is the vast foreign population which for the last three hundred years has been steadily pouring into the United States. The purpose of this map is, first, to show graphically the parts of other continents than North America which have furnished us this immense body of persons, amounting in 1821–1925 to a total of 36,000,000 immigrants. The total number of immigrants, 1821–1920, is displayed graphically on map 26. A second problem closely related is that of the distribution of the white foreigners into various parts of the United States. A third inquiry is into the distribution of the descendants of a very different class of immigrants, namely, the Negroes imported into the colonies and the United States, mostly previous to 1800. A comparison of the two lower maps shows at once that the Negro race has settled almost entirely in the South, which has received very few of the white foreigners; while the white immigrant population has settled in the Northeast and Northwest so that it comes into very little contact with the present Negroes.

Sources of Immigrants. The upper map is carefully laid out to bring out the connection of Europe, Asia, Africa and South America with the United States. The red lines starting from principal ports of departure in Europe show the principal lines of travel followed by ocean shipping, especially the present steam immigrant lines. The British Islands, Germany and Italy have furnished the largest groups of immigrants to the United States. The map brings out important questions with regard to Asiatic immigration. It shows first of all the Philippine Islands, which tho not annexed to the United States are incorporated into the governmental system of the United States. It shows, likewise, the regions on the coast of Asia under Japanese control from which, under act of Congress in 1924, no immigrants may enter the United States. It shows also the boundaries of vast regions in central and southern Asia, extending as far westward as the Caspian Sea from which under Acts of Congress no immigrants can be received in the United States. In addition, by a treaty with China dated 1880 and renewed in 1894, no Chinese could claim a right to enter the United States, except diplomats, merchants, travelers and students. China abrogated the treaty in 1904, but the restriction continues under acts of Congress from 1882 on. These restrictions on Asiatics are likely to be very significant in the next few decades of our national history.

Negroes, 1920. This map is based upon materials furnished by the United States Census. It brings out clearly the distribution of the ten million persons of African race living in the United States in 1920. These are practically all born in the United States, the Negro immigration from the West Indies and from Africa being only a few

hundred a year. As might be expected, the Negroes are bulked in the South, and particularly in the areas where they have for more than a century been employed in raising southern crops, especially cotton. In several of the large northern cities, particularly New York, Philadelphia, Indianapolis and Chicago, large Negro settlements exist.

ORIENTALS. The Orientals, including 111,000 Japanese and 62,000 Chinese, shown by the red circles, are to be found chiefly in the great northern cities, Boston, New York, Chicago. They are very numerous in San Francisco and other parts of California and the Pacific Coast.

MEXICANS. The immigration of Mexicans has become a very serious question, as is shown by the distribution of the red dots on the map, which are especially thick in southern Texas, Arizona and southern California.

FOREIGN BORN WHITE, 1920. This map brings out first of all the difficulty experienced in inducing immigrants from Europe to settle in the South either as artisans or as farmers. Outside of a few areas in Florida and along the Gulf coast there are almost no large settlements made up chiefly from immigrants; and the descendants of foreign born persons are very few, except in Louisiana. The thickest settlements are, as one would expect, in and near the ports of entry, from Boston to Baltimore. The areas in which the portion of foreign born people and their children is largest is in New England and the cities grouped about New York. The two northern tiers of states between the lakes and the Ohio contain most of the foreign born persons in the United States, altho there are some islands of European foreigners in the West and Pacific coast. The dense areas along the southern boundary of the United States are nearly all Mexicans.

MAP A42.
IMMIGRATION OF VARIOUS PEOPLES

The distribution of the principal immigrant groups of the United States is shown on this series of maps. The distribution is indicated by a series of dots, each representing 1000 people. The additional graphs indicate the number of immigrants arriving in periods of five years.

ENGLISH, WELSH, SCOTCH AND CANADIANS, 1920. The earliest immigrants into the present United States were of course English, tho from the first there were Irish, Scotch-Irish, Dutch, Germans and a few French and Spanish. The descendants of those earlier immigrants have all been merged into the general population; but immigration of Welsh, English and Scotch has continued in every decade. In New England, the white immigrants from the British Empire are almost all Canadians, most of whom are of French stock. The immigrants from overseas are thick in New York City, New Jersey and Pennsylvania, particularly in the mining and iron regions. The Canadians in Michigan and the states along the northern boundary of the United States are mostly of English and Scotch strains. The map shows the very wide diffusion of the immigrants of these races, especially an aggregation in the region about Salt Lake City and the Pacific coast cities.

GERMANS, 1920. German immigration on a large scale began in 1846 and from the first they tended to settle in the large places. They are very numerous in the stretch from New York to Baltimore. They have for years been an important element in Buffalo, Pittsburgh, Detroit, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Chicago, Milwaukee and Minneapolis; and they are scattered widely in the western and northwestern states, partly in the smaller towns, but the great number of them are farmers. The graphs show the largest number of German immigrants in any five years, 960,000 in 1881–85. Since the World War the number has been reduced by the immigration quota.

IRISH, 1920. The immigrants direct from southern Ireland, very few in colonial times, began to come over in great numbers, as the graph shows, in 1846, which was a famine year in Ireland. From the first they preferred the cities; hence the belt of abundant population of Irish derivation from Massachusetts to southern Pennsylvania. There are also large groups in a few of the middle western cities. Comparatively few Irish are found outside the cities and towns.

SCANDINAVIANS, 1920. The Scandinavians—Danes, Norwegians and Swedes—were early immigrants, a few hundred having settled on Delaware Bay as early as 1638, but the immigration was not over 25,000 a year until 1880, since which time they have been a considerable element in immigration. The early Scandinavian immigrants are distributed over the Northwest, nearly all of them east of the Missouri river. In the last thirty years, some hundred of thousands of Scandinavians have settled in the coast cities from Portland to Philadelphia.

ITALIANS, 1920. The Italians, as may be seen by the graphs, were very slow in starting for the United States. Down to 1886 less than 200,000 in all had come in. Thence started an immigration which in the fifteen years from 1901 to 1915 brought nearly 3,000,000 persons. Since the World War the working of the quota system has been unfavorable to Italians. Nearly all the Italians are massed in twelve or fifteen large cities and their neighborhood.

RUSSIANS 1920. The term "Russian" in immigration does not necessarily mean persons of a Russian race or who speak Russian. A few Russians are scattered about rural parts of the country, particularly in North Dakota, where some came over from Canada. Most of the Russians whose distribution is indicated on the map are Hebrews, the greater part of whom speak Yiddish or German. They are by nature a city folk, over a million of them being settled on the east side of New York. Probably three-fourths of them live in ten of the largest American cities. The graphs show that from 1901 to 1915 2 500,000 Russians came from Russia.

MAP A43.
TRANSPORTATION AT VARIOUS PERIODS

The development of transportation in the United States is shown on various maps in this atlas. Transportation in the Colonial period is shown on map 7. The development of canals and early railroads is shown on map 10. A further stage in the development of railroads and western transportation is shown on map 13. Railroad development at the time of the Civil War is shown on map 16. The great railroad systems of the present day with the principal routes of internal navigation are shown on map 19. In the present map, railroad development from 1860 to 1910 is shown in a series of four maps.

RAILROADS IN 1860–1870. Altho there were four years of war during this decade, both the map and the graphs show considerable progress. In 1860 New England and the northern Atlantic states were already well supplied with transportation facilities. The later development here, not only to 1870 but thruout, has been mainly in Maine and western Pennsylvania. The former, together with the associated building in northern New Hampshire and Vermont, is connected with Canadian lines, the lumber industry and summer travel rather than with any increase in population. In western Pennsylvania the great coal and iron industry and the newly-developed oil wells explain the great increase in mileage between 1860 and 1870 and also the later development. In the old Northwest, the three older states were already crisscrossed by railroads in 1860, but the development not only of connecting lines and feeders but also of thru lines continues to 1870 and beyond. In Michigan and Wisconsin the lines in 1860 ran east and west for the most part; the building during the ten years was mostly north and south, due to the lumber industry and the close following of the farmers behind the woodmen's advance. When the southern states seceded there was only one line in the region which connected the Atlantic seaboard with the Mississippi River, and only one continuous line between the Ohio River and the Gulf; but the main cities of the Atlantic coast from Savannah to Washington (except for a short water trip at the end) were joined, and the Appalachians had been crossed at one point. Tho torn by four years of war, some progress was made before the end of the decade, especially in supplying important missing links. Some of these were war-time constructions. West of the Mississippi, in 1860, the railroads had begun to push toward the frontier in Missouri and Iowa, aided by large federal land grants to the states; but at only one point, in Missouri, had the Missouri River been reached. In Arkansas and Minnesota no lines were in operation; in Louisiana, west of the river, only the beginning of the present Southern Pacific system; and in Texas, a couple of stubs of the many lines that now radiate from Houston. West of the Missouri the only rails were those extending a few miles from Sacramento, California, lines which in the end did not form a part of the transcontinental system. The map shows how greatly the condition had been changed by 1870, except in the trans-Mississippi South. Minnesota had made a good start of her system, and six lines now ran thru to the Missouri, to connect there with the transcontinental railroads being built under the bounty of federal land grants and in part by federal advances of money. The first of these Pacific lines was opened in 1869. A second road, thru Kansas, ran to Denver and joined the main line by way of Cheyenne. Also we see the beginning in Kansas of other such trunk lines, and even a few connecting links and feeders, tho these last are more a feature of the later maps.

RAILROADS IN 1870–1880. Most of the years of this period were covered by the depression following the panic of 1873. Railroad building had been very active down to the crisis, so that the ten years show a decided advance in transportation facilities, mostly in the Newer West. The South was not to become the New South until the next decade, and the most important features there on this map are the second line to the Ohio, by way of the Kanawha, the direct connection of Cincinnati with southern lines at Chattanooga and the Piedmont roads. The great transportation centers like Atlanta and Birmingham are of later development. In the West the thrust into the Great Lakes triangles continued and Illinois shows considerable north and south building. The trans-Mississippi construction continues to be mainly an east and west one, except in Texas and the connection in that state with Kansas and Missouri across present Oklahoma, then still an Indian reservation. No new transcontinental systems were in operation, but the lines were creeping across Dakota, had penetrated to the heart of the Rockies in Colorado, and were building both ways in New Mexico and Arizona. Agricultural development in California had made railroads necessary in its great valleys; both on the coast

and from the region of Great Salt Lake the beginnings of north and south lines are shown.

Railroads in 1880–1890. This was a period of continuous prosperity, of great increase in population and wealth, and of the awakening of the South. In West Virginia and the mountain regions around it, in Florida and in the trans-Mississippi portion of the South the penetration of the lines into new territory is marked. In the North the development of the mining region of northern Michigan is indicated. Three new transcontinental lines were placed in operation within the United States, and the Canadian Pacific was connected with American railroads. The Far-West north and south building had now not only linked up the Pacific Coast states but joined the Far-Northwest with the Utah-Colorado section. The transportation development in the Far West is more intimately connected with the trunk lines than in the East. In the older states railroads followed the lines of economic demand; in the West the great systems were built under governmental bounty and intended to serve political purposes and to encourage an economic development rather than answer one.

Railroads in 1890–1910. The period of this map is twenty years. The first half was again largely one of hard times following another panic, and with no great amount of railroad building in the earlier years. The second decade was one of great prosperity, but, as the graphs show, the railroad participation in this was as much a matter of greater use of existing roads as of new construction. The maze of lines had now extended well into the second tier of states west of the Mississippi, and the criss-cross of railroads is to be seen in almost every state west of these, especially in California and Colorado. Another transcontinental line, the Great Northern, has been put thru, and the connection of the Pacific Northwest with the Gulf region is to be noticed, as well as the connection of Utah with the Los Angeles neighborhood. In the East the most important development continued to be in West Virginia and Florida. The series of graphs indicates total mileage, miles constructed and the use of the railroads, passenger- and ton-miles—for certain periods.

MAP A44. POWER OF THE VOTER

One of the most important subjects connected with American history and government is the means by which the will of the voter is translated into the choice of public officials. This map is devoted to four outstanding questions involving the relation of the voter to parties, to elections and to what is called direct legislation; i.e., the making of constitutions and laws by submitting propositions of the voters at large for their decision by majority vote, or the initiation by them of such measures. These new political methods, except so far as they relate to methods of nomination and election, do not apply to federal affairs. These maps deal with statewide conditions only.

State-Wide Initiative and Referendum. Referendum is a word describing a method by which action taken by constitutional conventions or legislatures is submitted to the people for their expression of approval or disapproval thru popular vote. The system when applied to constitutions or bodies of fundamental laws is known as a "constitutional referendum" and was first applied in the United States to the Massachusetts constitution of 1780. At present there is only one state in the Union, Delaware, in which a constitutional amendment can be put into force in any other manner than by a vote of the electorate. Legislative bodies have always had the right of submitting an act of legislation to the people for their vote. This map, however, deals only with the new power, the right of the voters to demand—if a sufficient number of them so petition—that a bill be submitted to and accepted by the people before it becomes a law. Thus it is possible thru referendum in such cases for the voters to go over the heads of the legislature. This system is legal in Maine, Massachusetts, Maryland, Ohio, Michigan and most of the states west of the Mississippi. Legislative initiative may be either indirect or direct. The former provides that an initiated bill go to the legislature for consideration. If that body passes the bill as submitted to it by the popular petition, the enactment is completed unless held up for referendum; but if the legislature rejects it or neglects to act upon it within a certain time, the bill is submitted to popular vote. The legislature may submit an amended bill, which will also go on the ballot. This method holds in Maine, Massachusetts, Ohio, Michigan, South Dakota and Nevada. The direct legislative initiative, called "legislative initiative" on map, does not give the legislature any share in the measure; it is submitted directly to popular vote. This is the more common method, and was legal in twelve states in 1926. Under both systems the bill has its origin in a popular petition. Indirect and direct constitutional initiative is the application of the same methods to constitutional amendments, except that the safeguards are stronger and in the indirect system there is always a popular vote after the judgment of the legislature. The former is at present operative only in Massachusetts and Nevada; the latter is operative in eleven states. Two states, Ohio and Michigan, that have indirect legislative initiative have direct constitutional initiative; while five states, Maine, South Dakota, Utah, Montana and Washington, have only the legislative initiative. Maryland and New Mexico have the referendum without the initiative, and in Mississippi the direct legislative system was declared unconstitutional. In New England, Maryland, Ohio, Michigan and many western states these new methods of initiative and referendum have taken root. Nevertheless, in several New England states, the Middle States, the Northwest and almost the entire South the people as yet have not gone beyond the requirement that a new constitutional amendment or constitution must be ratified by the people.

Recall of Officials. In the last twenty years has sprung up a method of calling an official to account before his term expires. It began in Oregon in 1908 and in that state, Nevada and Kansas there is now a right to recall both appointive and elective officials, whether administrative or judicial. In another group of five states any person chosen by vote of the people—governor, auditor, judge, whatever he may be—is subject to being confronted with a special test election if a sufficient number of votes petition for that election. Another variety of the recall which is legal in Washington, Louisiana and Michigan applies to all elected officials except judges. The total number of states now operating some kind of recall is eleven, only two of which are east of the Mississippi. The question of the recall of judges is a special one because it is likely to be put in action if a judge makes an unpopular decision; and most communities wish judges who will not be swayed in their decisions by the opinions of other persons.

Regulation of Nominations and Campaigns. Until about 1910 the American theory of nominations and campaigns was that they were unofficial, tho conducted under legal regulations. The introduction of the Australian ballot, which is illustrated in the next map, brought about a great change because under that system all the ballots are official, printed by the state or local government, tho they are bound to put on the ballot candidates of regular parties. Hence, the question: Who is to decide what is a regular party, and whether the names have gone thru the forms required by that party? Clearly, the official election officers. By this process, the established parties became part of the official system. In the reform of electoral law, it was usual to provide that any body of persons might be recognized a regular party if they had polled a certain proportion of the total vote at the previous election. This proportion is sometimes large, especially in the South. The next step was to lay down laws for the open election of party committees. Another reform provided that party officials spending money must report the amount spent and for what purposes it was spent and they were limited in many states to a fixed sum for each candidate or to a certain amount per vote. The most important of the state restrictions on what had heretofore been considered voluntary parties is set forth in the map. The essential feature is not that of regulation but of regulations based upon action thru the official primary of all members of the party concerned. In all the states in the Union, except four, there exists some such regulation of nominations and campaigns. In nearly all the states a previous primary election is necessary to determine what persons really are the candidates of the party from which they hail. In a group of southern states, a primary may be held under state auspices if so desired by the party. This optional feature extends also to the primary election of party representatives. In a few states, New York, Indiana and Idaho, a nominating convention is required for the higher offices. In most states the old nominating delegate convention is prohibited. A large number of states call for primary election of party representatives; that is, committeemen or delegates to party conventions within the state, or both. In about twenty states delegates to the national nominating conventions of all parties must be chosen in a primary public election; or the voters may indicate their preference for the candidate for whom the state's delegates should vote. The preference may or may not pledge the delegates. A few states, pointed out on the map by the letters "NP," require a special machinery for the nomination of judges, intended to take them out of party warfare. The method is applied to other offices also. A very large number of states require a publication of the amounts of money spent in the campaign, the most effective laws calling for statements from month to month during the progress of it.

Systems of Voting. Before a person can vote he must be registered, present himself to certain officials and, by satisfying them of his qualifications, have his name placed on the polling list. In colonial times voters often voted orally for their candidate, and that was the method on and off in Kentucky until about 1890. The original paper ballot was written in by the voter with the name of his candidate. Then came the system of printed ballots furnished by the candidates or parties. These were supposed to be secret ballots, tho party tickets could frequently be recognized by their color. By 1890 a system of printed tickets, not prepared under any supervision by the state, was practically universal. Then began the introduction of the so-called Australian ballot, in which, on one large sheet of paper are printed under public supervision the names of all the party candidates. Voters marked the names of those whom they preferred. This was effectively a secret ballot. An objection to this system was that large numbers of voters desired only to vote the ticket of the party with which they were connected and it was a hardship to oblige them to hunt thru the ballot for names which were often arranged alphabetically. Hence, various systems of block voting. The easiest method was to arrange

the candidates in party columns each with an emblem at its head so that even the illiterate voter might put a cross in one place and vote the whole ticket. This so-called straight voting is the present method in about half the states of the Union. A third system is that of office grouping with no straight voting, which is used in Massachusetts, New York and many southern and far western states. Finally two states, Pennsylvania and Nebraska, while arranging the ballots for office grouping have methods by which a single cross registers a straight vote; i.e., a vote for all the candidates of a specified party. In two states, North Carolina and South Carolina, separate party tickets must be passed upon in advance by public officials to see that there is no fraud. The systems of straight voting in party columns and voting office groups without straight voting are decidedly the most frequent at present in the United States.

MAP A45.
CHART OF FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

The American government is the most complicated in the world, for it includes at least four different kinds of government, all of which may be operating at once in a given area. Everybody is subject to federal law and government, to state law and government, to county law and government, and most of us to city, town or borough law and government. Out of all these, the simplest, because the most universal form and the best fitted together, is the federal government whose authority and subdivision into three coördinate departments is delineated in this chart. First and most important is the source of governmental authority as operated thru the federal union. As the chart shows, the bottom rock of popular government is the people; the actual political force is the voters or such part of them as go to the polls. The "people of the United States" can, by going at it in the right way and observing the limitations of the federal constitution, legally make any change that they desire in the federal government. Without formal change the federal Constitution is bound to alter from generation to generation because new tasks are cast upon it, because it may be amended at any time, and because, by the decisions of courts and the forces of tradition and the following of precedent, the weight and system of the Constitution slowly varies. The Constitution limits its own working; first, by the great principle that no power can be exercised which is not somewhere authorized either directly or indirectly in the text of the Constitution; second, by limitations protecting personal liberty in clauses relating to that subject in the Constitution. Under the federal Constitution three parallel departments of the government are set up, legislative, executive and judiciary; and in theory the three are entirely independent of each other. The general organization of Congress in two houses, however, as set forth in the chart, is not the whole of the legislative power. The President has a share in all acts of Congress by his power of approval or veto of bills. Likewise, the courts are a part of the legislative power because they have authority to construe and apply legislative acts. The immense legislative powers of the United States are classified in the chart, and attention is particularly called to the importance of implied powers. The "Executive" includes not alone the President but also the Vice-President, the ten departments headed by cabinet officers, and many thousands of officials and employees of the government. The President shares in the legislative power in various ways and to a less degree in the judicial power. The judiciary is the smallest but in some ways the most powerful of the three branches of government. Its organization is set forth in the chart and also its direct and indirect powers, the most important of which is the authority (very frequently exercised) of holding state or federal statutes unconstitutional and therefore void. It possesses like authority of quashing action taken by executive officials. The two maps on the chart show the relation of the District of Columbia, and particularly of the city of Washington, as the center of federal government.

MAP A46.
CHART OF STATE GOVERNMENT

More difficult to draw up in brief form is the state government. The voters are the same as in federal affairs, but each state has its own Constitution and each has a right to influence the national government thru its representatives. Above all, each state has the right to exercise powers of government so far as not prevented by the federal Constitution or its own Constitution. The states also come into many more relations with their citizens than the national government; and they must respect the body of the individual rights of the citizens. The three departments of state governments are very like those of the federal government; the legislatures, the governors and the heads of executive departments and the judiciary all act on much the same principles as in the federal government; but the powers of all three of the great subdivisions of government extend to many more subjects than in the federal government, because of the reservation to the states of all governing powers not vested in the federal government by the Constitution of the United States. No chart can enumerate any considerable number of the powers used either by the federal or the state government; their organization is too detailed. This chart also brings out the fact sometimes left out of account that county, town or township and city governments are all a part of the state system. They are created by state constitutions or laws; and they are all subject to change by the same forces that made them. Great efforts have been made to carry the idea of division of powers among three departments very far down into these local governments. The principle does not apply to such creation by the state government, for in the counties the legislative and executive powers are never distinctly separated; and the county courts are not really a part of the county government; they are branches of the state government acting within the particular county. The graphs show where the income of the states comes from and for what purpose it is spent. The two maps show the way in which a typical state, Iowa, is divided into districts for a variety of purposes, which usually brings together several counties. In some states a single county, e.g., Cook County, Illinois, may be divided into several districts.

MAP A47.
CHART OF CITY GOVERNMENT

The city government chart is arranged on substantially the same lines as those for federal and state governments. As a matter of fact, cities have no judicial branch in their government; the so-called city courts are simply state courts authorized to act within a city, but subject to appeal to higher state courts. At present, city governments in the United States are grouped into three general types: viz., Mayor-Council, Commission and City Manager. In either of the three cases there must be a charter which, whether individual or one of a type authorized by a general statute, springs from the state government and may be altered or annulled at the will of that superior authority. Such changes in charters are very frequent. The main difference between these three types of charters is that in the Mayor-Council system there is a mayor alongside a legislative body, sometimes of two houses, but usually of one house. In the Commission plan, the legislative body, sometimes called the city council, is made up of a few men called a Board of Commission, who together by majority vote pass orders on public matters, and each of them is the head of an executive department. This centralizes responsibility. Under the Commission plan, and indeed under all city plans, a board of education or school committee is commonly set up which is really a separate legislative or executive committee, responsible directly to the voters. Under the City Manager plan the city is run as a great corporation would be run, by the appointment of a City Manager who does what the president of a corporation or the chairman of the executive committee of a corporation would do. There is usually some sort of council, which is expected to pay due regard to the plans of the City Manager. All other city officials are subject to his orders so far as he is within the law. The map of the United States shows the distribution of the principal Manager and Commission cities; and also of the principal Mayor-Council cities of the old-type. The commission form, which originated in Galveston about 1912, has spread widely to the eastern half of the United States. The Manager plan is more popular in the south and in California. The old-fashioned type is almost the only type in New England and in the interior. The map of Chicago shows the irregularity and lack of system in the subdivision of the cities into wards which, however, in most cities are only administrative organizations having no civic life of their own. The graphs show the sources of city income, the purposes of city outgo, and the distribution and collection of taxes for federal, state, county and city purposes. A widely spread type of city government is the incorporated village government.

MAP A48. UNITED STATES TODAY

For all purposes of comparison of political matters, it is necessary to refer constantly to a general map of the United States. The present map is intended to be for reference, as showing: first, the external boundaries of the continental area; next, the state boundaries which are now adjusted and settled almost to the last mile. The map is also an historical summary of the admission of states into the Union. No dates are affixed to the thirteen original states, for they came in by their own right derived from association in the Revolution and shared in the making of the Federal Constitution in 1789. Every one of the thirty-five other states has come into the Union under the terms of a specific act of Congress, the date of the taking effect of which is inscribed on the map on each state; for instance, the Missouri Compromise Act was passed in 1820, but it was not until 1821 that Missouri became a full member of the Union. Every one of the thirty-five additional states, except Texas and California, went thru a previous

existence as an organized territory or part of an organized territory, except that four of the states were separated from larger communities of which they had previously been a part, viz., Maine, Vermont, West Virginia and Kentucky. In a few cases limitations were laid upon states on entrance into the Union; for instance, all the states in the original Northwest Territory were bound by the conditions of the Northwest Ordinance of 1787. Those conditions, however, have now ceased to have any significance; and the forty-eight states are politically equal in their relations and obligations to the Union, also in the privileges to be derived from the Union, and in their relations with each other. Within each state is shown every place which has ever been its official capital, which in earlier times meant simply where the legislature met, either in colonial or later times (with a special inset for Vermont and New Hampshire). The explanations in the title show how the reader may distinguish places that were capitals before admission as states; former state capitals, no longer used as such; the former places where the Congress of the United States sat in the Revolutionary period; and the present state capitals.

SUPPLEMENTARY MAPS

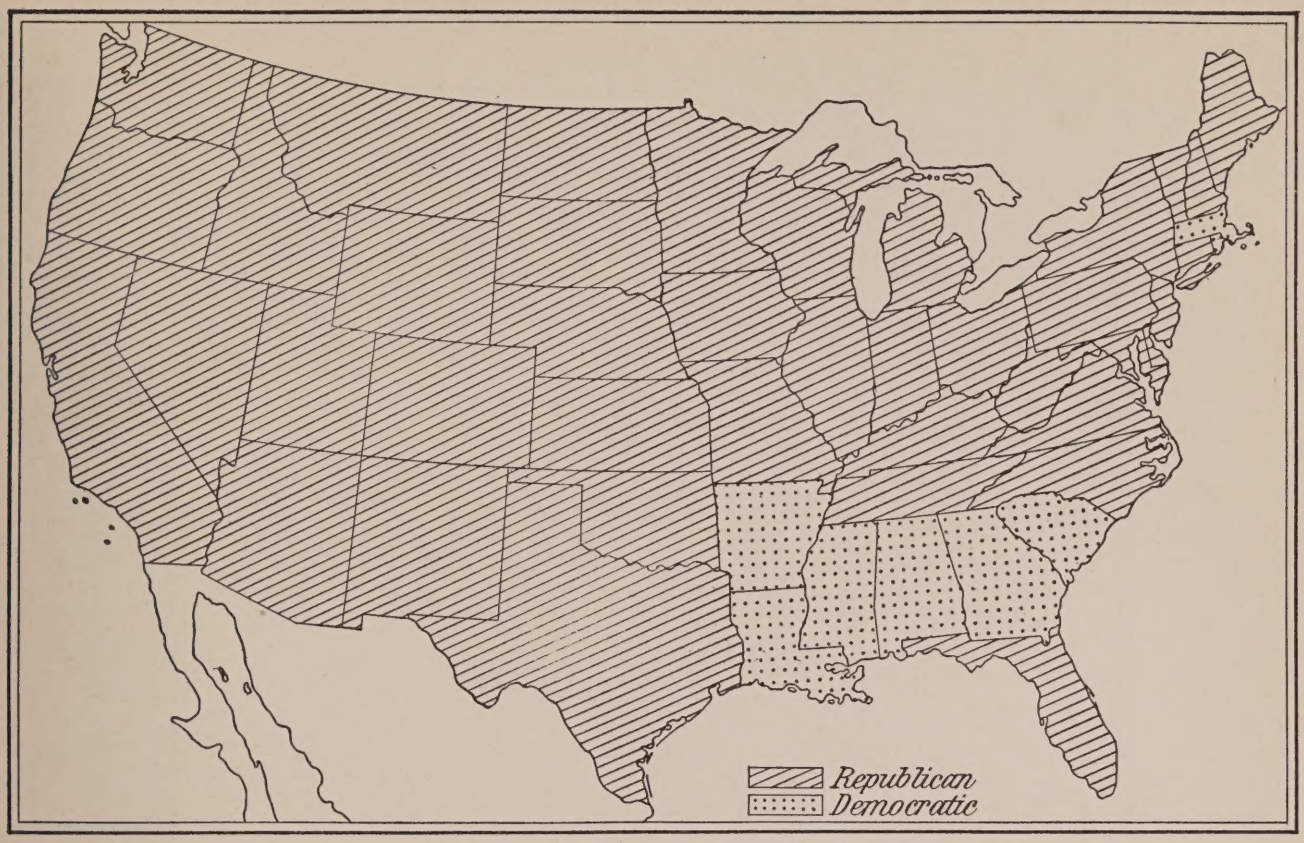
UNITED STATES IN THE WORLD WAR

FIG. I. UNITED STATES IN THE WORLD WAR

The United States entered the World War on the side of the Allied nations on April 6, 1917. The immediate cause for this was the declaration of Germany removing restriction on submarine warfare which resulted in the loss of American shipping. The United States raised a huge army and increased its naval forces. Almost two millions of American soldiers had been landed in France by the end of the War in November, 1918. The aid of the United States with armed forces, both military and naval, had a decided bearing on the ultimate Allied victory. The map shows the Western Front and the special areas in which American troops conducted operations.

Certain features of the peace settlement are also indicated on the map. These include the reannexation of Alsace-Lorraine to France; the Saar Basin placed under the League of Nations control; the annexation of Malmedy, Eupen and Moresnet to Belgium; and the Belgian, British, American and French zones of occupation on the left bank of the Rhine with the bridgeheads and demilitarization zone on the right bank.

PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION 1928



Hoover 444 ELECTORAL VOTE 531
Smith 87

Republican 21,482,588 POPULAR VOTE 36,855,079
Democratic 15,011,115
Minor 361,376

FIG. II. PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION 1928

This election is described on page XIX. The map shows the lineup of the states for the various political parties with the electoral and popular votes.

FEDERAL RESERVE SYSTEM

The inadequacy of our national banking system in meeting the credit needs of our growing industry and commerce led to the establishment of the Federal Reserve System by the Act of 1913. The national banking system as it existed from 1863 to 1913 was highly decentralized; there were many thousands of independent banks. The Federal Reserve Act divides the country into twelve districts, each containing a Federal Reserve Bank (see map). All national banks and such state banks as wish to do so may become members of the system. The depositors are the member banks, and are required to keep on deposit a certain specified part of their funds. A reserve bank accepts deposits and loans funds only to member banks; a reserve bank has no dealings with individuals. The reserves of the Federal Reserve Bank are available for the business needs of the entire district altho under special conditions, funds may flow from one reserve district to another subject to the discretion of the Federal Reserve Board. By centralizing money and sending it where needed and by using bank notes to meet special emergencies the Federal Reserve system has stabilized the credit system of the country.

FIG. III. FEDERAL RESERVE DISTRICTS

HISPANIC AMERICA 1828

FIG. IV. HISPANIC AMERICA 1828

In previous maps, 1, 2, 3, and 6, various phases of the history of Hispanic America down to 1763 have been outlined. At this latter date the domination of Hispanic America by the Spanish and Portuguese was being challenged by the English, French and Dutch (see map 6). The revolt of the Spanish and Portuguese colonies in South America came about a third of a century behind the revolt of the English Colonies in North America. The causes of the Spanish American revolution were both internal and external. Economic restriction, excessive taxation, land monopoly, and class favoritism excited unrest. This movement of unrest developed into a struggle for independence. The conquest of Spain by Napoleon was made the occasion of a general uprising in Hispanic America, particularly in Northern South America under Miranda and Bolivar, in La Plata under Artigas, Francia and others: in Chile under O'Higgins, and in Mexico under Hidalgo and others. The Wars of Independence in South America, beginning in 1808, consisted of two main movements. In the north, Caracas and Bogota were the chief centers of revolution. In the south, Buenos Aires and Santiago were the principal foci. These two movements came together in Peru, the last center of royalist power, for the final overthrow of Spanish rule. The first republic to be established was that of the First Republic of Venezuela in 1810. The founding of these new Hispanic American nations was not established easily or without opposition. After the wars of independence, there followed a long struggle for political stability, national solidarity and economic prosperity. Personal ambitions led to the establishment of dictatorships in some areas. By 1828 the established republics in the former possessions of Spain in South America were: Colombia (1819–30), Peru (1821–24), Bolivia (1825), Chile (1810–18), Argentine Confederation (1825), Paraguay (1811), and Uruguay (1828).

Independence came to Brazil without bloodshed. Under the threat of Napoleon, John, Prince Regent of Portugal fled to Brazil with his court. In 1815, Brazil was raised to the rank of a kingdom. As a result of disagreement with Portugal, Brazil became an independent empire in 1822 with Dom Pedro as emperor.

HISPANIC AMERICA 1850–1930

The political evolution of the republics of South America has been marked by bitter struggles and civil wars. Early in the nineteenth century Spain had lost control of her territory in South America and Portugal also had relinquished hold on Brazil. Colombia was founded in 1819 by Bolivar and in 1821, Quito (Ecuador) was annexed. In 1829–1830 Ecuador and Venezuela withdrew from Colombia and established separate republics, successively known as New Granada, Grenadine Confederation, United States of New Granada. United States of Colombia, the present Republic of Colombia, adopted a reorganized form of government in 1886. Brazil became an independent empire in 1822. In 1831 Dom Pedro the emperor abdicated in favor of his son Dom Pedro II, a minor, who was crowned in 1841, and reigned until the revolution of 1889 which led to the establishment of Brazil as a republic. Argentina (Argentine Republic) on its declaration of independence from Spain was known as the United Provinces of the Rio de la Plata and later as the Argentine Confederation. The present constitution dates from 1853. The territorial limits of the various republics have varied at different periods. The international relations of the South American republics have been mainly with each other. Since 1850 harmonious relationships have been interrupted frequently by boundary disputes, a summary of which is shown on the accompanying map. A few rivalries have resulted in strife, notably war between Brazil and Paraguay (1856–1870) and what is known as the War of the Pacific (1879–1884) between Chile on the one hand and Bolivia and Peru on the other. The final settlement of this dispute was arranged in 1929 between Peru and Chile by the transfer of the Tacna area to Peru. Bolivia, not being considered in this settlement, has expressed her dissatisfaction at not being offered some concessions in territory. The areas of friction in South America are gradually being reduced. The most serious dispute still unsettled is that between Bolivia and Paraguay in the Gran Chaco region. The following list summarizes the territorial disputes and adjustments in South America since 1850.

FIG. V. HISPANIC AMERICA 1850–1930

EXPANSION OF BRAZIL (See Fig. V)

1. From Uruguay 1851
2. From Venezuela 1859, 1905
3. From Bolivia 1867, 1903
4. From Paraguay 1872
5. From Argentina 1895
6. From Ecuador 1904
7. From Colombia 1907

QUESTION OF THE PACIFIC

a. Yielded by Bolivia to Chile 1884
b. Yielded by Peru to Chile 1884
c. and d. In dispute between Peru and Chile 1879–1929. Occupied by Chile
d. Ceded to Peru by Chile 1929

OTHER DISPUTED AREAS

A. Gran Chaco in dispute between Bolivia and Paraguay.
B. Disputed area between Ecuador and Peru.
C. In dispute between Venezuela and Great Britain until 1899.

There are minor disputed areas along the Colombia-Venezuela boundary and in the La Plata estuary between Argentina and Uruguay.

THE FEDERATION AND EXPANSION OF CANADA

FIG. VI. FEDERATION AND EXPANSION OF CANADA

In previous maps, 1, 2, 4, 6, and 8, some aspects of the development of British North America are presented. Occupied by the French in the seventeenth century, the region received the name of New France. Acadia was ceded by France to England in 1713. In 1759–60 the British effected the conquest of Canada which was formally relinquished by France in the Treaty of Paris, 1763. In 1791 the provinces of Upper Canada and Lower Canada were formed out of the province of Quebec. The so-called Maritime Provinces—Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Cape Breton Island, and Prince Edward Island—continued under separate administrations. In 1840 Upper and Lower Canada were united into the Province of Canada. During the following two decades the need for closer co-operation between the provinces of British North America was made evident. The American Civil War, the need for mutual protection, and desirability of closer trade relations advanced the cause of confederation. In 1867 the three provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick united to form the Dominion of Canada. In 1869 the Dominion acquired the rights of the Hudson's Bay Company and transformed part of what had been known as Rupert's Land into the North West Territories. In 1870 the Red River Settlement came into the Dominion as the province of Manitoba and in 1871 British Columbia joined the Dominion. Prince Edward Island came into the Confederation in 1873. The province of Canada was once more divided into the provinces of Quebec and Ontario. In 1876 and in 1882 the districts of Keewatin, Athabaska, Alberta, Assiniboia and Saskatchewan were formed out of the North West Territories. Yukon and Ungava were later detached from the North West Territories which also underwent territorial reorganization. In 1905 Alberta and Saskatchewan became provinces of the Dominion. At various times the boundaries of some of the provinces have been adjusted, greatly increasing their area. In 1927 the long-standing dispute between Newfoundland and Canada as to the ownership of Labrador was settled in favor of Newfoundland.

INDEX

Abbreviations: *b.*-Bay; *c.*-Cape; *c.h.*-Court House; *i.*, *is.*-Island, Islands; *l.*-Lake; *mt.*, *mts.*-Mountain, Mountains; *p.*-People; *pt.*-Point; *r.*-River; *sd.*-Sound; *str.*-Strait; *ter.*-Territory; *tr.*-Tribe.

Location is shown by latitude and longitude to the nearest degree. *N.*-north; *S.*-south; *E.*-east; and *W.*-west.

A

Aberdeen, 45N. 99W. 19
Abingdon, 37N. 82W. 10
Abitibi, r., 50N. 81W. 11
Abnakis, tr., 45N. 69W. . . . 4
Acadia, 47N. 66W. 4
Acapulco, 17N. 100W. 23
Adaes, 32N. 93W. 11
Adairsville, Inset A. 16
Adelaide, 35S. 139E. 24
Aden, 13N. 45E. 1
Adirondack, mts., 44N. 75W. 10
Afghanistan, 32N. 65E. . . . 41
Agricultural College, 34N. 89W. 22
Aguada, 18N. 67W. 3
Akron, 41N. 82W. 21
Alabama, 33N. 87W. 14
Alabama, r., 32N. 87W. . . . 4
Alaska, 64N. 155W. 24
Alaska, g., 78N. 145W. 24
Albania, 40N. 20E. 41
Albany, 32N. 84W. 4
Albany, r., 51N. 90W. 11
Albemarle, sd., 36N. 76W. . 4
Albuquerque, 35N. 107W. . 11
Alcalde, 36N. 120W. 18
Alcorn, 32N. 91W. 22
Aleutian, is., 52N. 178W. . . 24
Alexandria, Inset F. 8
Alexandria, 31N. 30E. 1
Alexandria, 31N. 92W. 16
Alexandria Reservoir, Inset B. 45
Alexandria, 39N. 77W. 10
Algeria, 32N. 5E. 41
Algiers, 37N. 3E. 41
Algoma, 43N. 94W. 43
Algonquin, tr., 50N. 103W. 1
Allatoona, Inset A. 16
Allegheny, r. 42N. 79W. . . . 4
Allentown, 41N. 75W. 21
Alliance, 42N. 103W. 43
Allouez, 1665-67, 47N. 90W 4
Altai, 48N. 90E. 41
Altamah, r., 32N. 82W. . . . 4
Altar, 31N. 113W. 6
Alton, 39N. 90W. 16
Amarillo, 35N. 102W. 19
Amazon, r., 2S. 48W. 24
Amelia, Inset F. 8
Ames, 42N. 94W. 22
Amherst, Inset. 48
Amherst, 43N. 73W. 22
Amichel, 27N. 98W. 3
Amsterdam, 43N. 74W. . . . 21
Amundsen, 1906, 70N. 135W. 24
Amur, r., 48N. 132E. 24
Anaconda, 46N. 113W. 20
Anacostia, r., Inset B. 45
Ancon, Inset. 23
Anderson, 35N. 82W. 21
Andersonville, 32N. 84W. . . 16
Anegada Passage, 17N. 65W. 23
Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, 16N. 30E. 41
Angola, 15S, 15E. 2
Angora, 40N. 33E. 41
Annapolis, 39N. 77W. 4
Annapolis (P. Royal), 45N. 65W. 4
Antietam, Inset B. 16
Antigua, i., 17N. 62W. 23
Antilia, 20N. 60W. 1
Antwerp 51N. 4E. 41
Apache, tr., Inset. 6
Apalachen, Insert B. 2
Apalachicola, r., 30N. 85W 4
Apalachicola Arsenal, 31N. 85W. 15
Appalachian, mts., 38N. 80W. 10
Appomattox, 37N. 79W. . . 16
Appomattox, c. h., Inset B 16
Appomattox, r., Inset E. . . 8
Apure, r., 8N. 69W. 23
Aquia Creek, 38N. 77W. . . 13
Aquidneck, i., Inset D. 8
Arabia, 21N. 46E. 2
Arabian Sea, 13N. 60E. . . . 41
Araucan, tr., 49S. 73W. . . . 1
Arawak, tr., 9N. 75W. 1
Archives Building, Inset A 45
Arecibo, 18N. 67W. 3
Argentina, 38S. 67W. 24
Arica, 19S. 70W. 2
Arizona, 35N. 112W. 18
Arizona Ter., 35N. 112W. . 31

Arkansas, 35N. 93W. 14
Arkansas, r., 38N. 103W. . . 11
Arkansas, ter., 36N. 95W. . 11
Arkansas, tr., 36N. 92W. . . 4
Arkansas Post, 34N. 91W. 7
Arlington, 32N. 85W. 43
Arlington Memorial Bridge, Inset A. 45
Arlington National Cemetery, Inset B. 45
Arnold, 1775, 45N. 71W. . . 8
Ashby's Gap, Inset B. 16
Ashland, 38N. 83W. 13
Ashland, 47N. 91W. 21
Ashley, r., Inset. 15
Ashtabula, 42N. 81W. 21
Asir, 16N. 42E. 41
Assiniboine, r., 50N. 99W. . 11
Astor, 29N. 81W. 43
Astoria, 46N. 124W. 13
Asuncion, 25S. 58W. 6
Atchison, 40N. 95W. 18
Athapascan, tr., 63N. 148W. 1
Athens, 34N. 83W. 22
Atlanta, 34N. 84W. 13
Atrato, r., 7N. 77W. 8
Auburn, 33N. 86W. 22
Auckland, 37S. 175E. 24
Audiencia of Espanola, 25N. 73W. 3
Augusta, 44N. 70W. 10
Augusta, 33N. 82W. 10
Austin, 30N. 98W. 15
Austin, 40N. 117W. 43
Austin, 45N. 118W. 43
Australia, 25S. 135E. 24
Austria, 54N. 15E. 41
Aves, i., 16N. 64W. 23
Axacan, Inset B. 2
Ayas, 37N. 36E. 1
Azores, is. 39N. 29W. 1
Aztec, p., 25N. 105W. 1
Azua, 18N. 71W. 3

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Bacalar, 18N. 89W. 3
Baffin, b., 72N. 65W. 24
Bagdad, 33N. 44E. 1
Bahama, is., 25N. 75W. . . . 3
Bahia, 13S. 38W. 6
Baker, i. O. 177W. 24
Baker City, 45N. 118W. . . . 20
Balboa, Inset. 23
Balboa, 1513, 9N. 78W. . . . 3
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Balkh, 37N. 67E. 1
Balls Bluff, Inset B. 16
Baltimore, 39N. 77W. 10
Bangkok, 14N. 101E. 41
Bangor, 45N. 69W. 10
Bannack, 45N. 113W. 48
Baracoa, 20N. 74W. 3
Barbados, i., 13N. 59W. . . . 23
Barbary, 32N. 1W. 2
Barbuda, i., 18N. 62W. . . . 23
Barcelona, Inset A. 1
Barnstable, Inset C. 5
Barquisimeto, 10N. 69W. . . 23
Barranquilla, 11N. 75W. . . 23
Bastidas, 1500, 12N. 74W. . 3
Batavia, 6S. 107E. 41
Bath, 35N. 77W. 48
Bath, 44N. 79W. 21
Baton Rouge, 30N. 91W. . . 16
Baxter Springs, 37N. 95W 43
Bay, is., 16N. 86W. 23
Bay City, 44N. 84W. 21
Bayamo, 20N. 77W. 3
Bayou Pierre, r., Inset C. . 16
Bayou Sara, 31N. 91W. . . . 13
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Beacon Hill, Inset B. 8
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Beaufort, 32N. 81W. 43
Beaumont, 30N. 94W. 20
Beaverton, 44N. 79W. 13
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Belfast, 44N. 69W. 43
Belgian Congo, 2S.25E. . . . 41
Belgium, 50N. 5E. 41
Belize, 18N. 88W. 23
Bellingham, 49N. 122W. . . . 20
Belmont, 37N. 89W. 16
Belmont, 43N. 90W. 48
Bemis Heights, 43N. 74W. 8
Benicia, 38N. 122W. 48
Bengue Viejo, 17N. 89W. . . 3
Bennington, 43N. 73W. . . . 8

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Bentonville, 35N. 78W. . . . 16
Bent's Fort, 38N. 103W. . . 14
Berenice, 24N. 35E. 1
Bergen, 60N. 5E. 41
Bering Sea, 58N. 179E. . . . 24
Berkeley, 38N. 122W. 22
Bermudas, is., 32N. 65W. . 6
Beverly, 39N. 80W. 16
Bhutan, 24N. 90E. 41
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Big Falls, 48N. 94W. 43
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Big Sioux, r., 43N. 97W. . . 11
Bighorn, r., 45N. 108W. . . . 11
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Binghamton, 42N. 76W. . . . 21
Birmingham, 34N. 87W. . . 21
Biru, 5N. 77W. 3
Bisbee, 31N. 110W. 20
Bismarck, 47N. 101W. 18
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Blanchard, 45N. 70W. 43
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Bloomfield, 41N. 92W. 43
Blue Ridge, 37N. 80W. 10
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Bojador, c., 26N. 14W. . . . 1
Bokhara, 40N. 64E. 1
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Bolivia, 17S. 65W. 24
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Borneo, (Java Major) 4N. 108E. 1
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Boulder, 40N. 105W. 20
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Bowling Green, Inset F. . . . 8
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Bragg, 1862, 37N. 84W. . . . 16
Brandenburg, 38N. 86W. . . 16
Brandy Station, Inset B. . . 16
Brandywine (Chads Ford), Inset. 8
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Bruinsburg, Inset C. 16
Brunswick, 31N. 81W. 19
Bucaramanga, 7N. 73W. . . 23
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Buenaventura, 4N. 77W. . . 23
Buenos Aires, 35S. 58W. . . 6
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Burlington, 41N. 91W. 13
Butte, 46N. 112W. 19
Butts Hill, Inset D. 8

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Cabral, 1500, 12S. 34W. . . . 1
Cabrillo, 1542, Inset B. . . . 2
Caddo, tr., 36N. 98W. 1
Cadiz, 37N. 6W. 1
Cahawba, 32N. 87W. 11
Cahokia, 39N. 90W. 4
Cairns, 17S. 146E. 24
Cairo, 30N. 31E. 1
Cairo, 37N. 89W. 13
Cajamarca, 7S. 79W. 3
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Calcutta, 23N. 88E. 41
Calgary, 51N. 114W. 19
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Calicut, 11N. 76E. 2
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Camden, 34N. 81W. 8
Camden, 34N. 93W. 16
Camden, 40N. 75W. 21
Cameroon, 5N. 13E. 41
Camilla, 31N. 84W. 17
Camp Colorado, 32N. 99W. 15
Camp Cooper, 33N. 100W. 15
Camp Hudson, 30N. 101W. 15
Camp Verde, 30N. 99W. . . 15
Campbell, 1778, 37N. 74W. 8
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Campeche, g., 21N. 94W. . . 3
Cambridge, Inset. 8
Canada, 55N. 105W. 24
Canadian, r., 35N. 96W. . . 11
Canal Zone, 9N. 79W. 23
Canary, Is. 28N. 15W. 1
Canberra, 35S. 149E. 24
Candelaria, Inset. 6
Cannanore, 12N. 75E. 2
Canton, 23N. 113E. 24
Cape, Fear, r., 35N. 78W. 4
Cape Girardeau, 37N. 89W 11
Cape Haitien, 20N. 72W. . . 23
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Castleton, Inset. 48
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Cauca, r., 7N. 75W. 3
Cayenne, 5N. 52W. 6
Cayugas, tr., Inset D. 4
Cebu, 10N. 124E. 24
Cedar Creek, Inset B. 16
Cedar Keys, 29N. 83W. . . . 16
Cedar Mountain, Inset B. . 16
Cedar Rapids, 42N. 92W. . 13

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Celaya, 21N. 100W. 23
Celebes, is., 2S. 120E. 24
Cempoalla, 19N. 96W. 3
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Cerro Gordo, Inset. 14
Ceuta, 36N. 5W. 1
Ceylon (Seilan) 8N. 80E. . . 1
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Chambersburg, Inset B. . . 16
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Champlain, 1615-16, 46N. 80W. 4
Champoton, 19N. 91W. . . . 3
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Charleston, 38N, 82W. . . . 17
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Charlestown, Inset. 48
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Chelsea, Inset B. 8
Cherbourg, 50N. 2W. 41
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Cherokees, tr., 36N. 85W. . 4
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Cherry Valley, 43N. 75W. . 8
Chesapeake, b., 38N. 76W 4
Chesapeake & Ohio Canal, Inset B. 45
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Chester, Inset F. 8
Chester Gap, Inset B. 16
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Chevy Chase, Inset B. 45
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